CONFIDENTIAL

097.3
Z1092
no.730 C
2d. ed.

OFFICE OF STRATEGIC SERVICES

Research and Analysis Branch

Out SIDE

R & A NO. 730, 2d edition

DEPARTMENT OF STATE
INTELLIGENCE REFERENCE DIVISION
RECEIVED
DEC 3 1946

SURVEY OF FINLAND

25 April 1942

Second Edition: 21 October 1943

If and when this study outlives its
usefulness to you, kindly return it to:

Office of Strategic Services
Director, Research and Analysis Branch
25th and E Streets, N. W.
Washington 25, D. C.

CONFIDENTIAL

Prefatory Note
to Survey on
Finland

The survey on Finland was prepared during March and April of 1942. For some time no further copies of it have been available. Therefore, it is deemed worth while to issue a reprint to meet the additional calls for copies. Were time available, the original text might be modified in various passages and, on some points, brought up to date. This would apply especially to the section on foreign policy. Most of the discussion, however, remains valid.

CONFIDENTIAL

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Section III: Population & Social Conditions

Page
15. General 1
16. Population 3
17. Ethnic & Social Conditions 4
18. Language 7
19. Characteristics of the people 8
20. Living conditions 10
21. Labor conditions 11
22. Public health, sanitation, hospitals 12
23. Education 13
24. Religion 14
25. Public order and police 15
26. Press, propaganda, censorship 15

Section IV: Political

27. Government 20
28. Political parties 23
29. Foreign policy 26
30. Important alien groups 28

Section V: Economic

31. General 29
32. Manufacturing 34
33. Utilities 39
34. Railroads 41
35. Roads 42
36. Shipping 45
37. Commercial aviation 48
38. Commerce 49
39. Communications 51
40. Finance 53

Charts and Maps

1. Governmental organization. following 21
2. Distribution of industry. (map) " 35
3. Railroads. (map) " 41
4. Roads. (map) 42

Appendixes

I Annual per capita consumption of certain foods
II Commodities of general military significance
III Utilization of water power, 1939
IV Port facilities
V City of Helsinki (photostatic map)
VI Cities and villages (2 photostatic maps)

STRATEGIC SURVEY OF FINLAND

SECTION III

POPULATION AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS

15. GENERAL.

a. Finland as a part of Sweden. Before 1808-1809, Finland was an integral part of Sweden for over 600 years. During this long period, Sweden and Finland constituted a single kingdom. Swede and Finn were equally subjects of the same crown; both were equally "native Swedes" as regards political and other rights and privileges. The country was as much a component part of the kingdom as were other peripherally located sections of the realm. It was one of the "lands" which made up the kingdom (Norrland, Götaland, Svealand, Finland, etc.). Finland was itself a combination of "lands," and "Finland" was used for centuries as a designation of only southwest Finland.

This circumstance accounts for the similarity of much of the culture of the two countries. Finn and Swede have the same tradition in government, law, courts, administration, church and religion, education and the like. Before the nineteenth century, both had participated in the upbuilding of common institutions and ways of doing things, and both had been equally self-governing or free. This circumstance also explains the "Western" culture and civilization of the Finns, and their constant insistence that while political independence is of recent date, the things essential to a modern democracy rest upon foundations laid generations ago.

b. Finland as a part of Russia. When Russia conquered the country in 1808-1809, the result was not the reduction of Finland to the status of a subject province. The laws, the courts, the religious and educational institutions, the economic and administrative set-up, etc., under which Finland had lived before 1809 remained largely unchanged after the conquest. Furthermore, the Finns now obtained something they had not had before: first, a constitution of their own (substantially the Swedish constitution that had applied to the whole kingdom before 1809); and secondly, self-government designed for Finland alone. The country became an autonomous part of the Russian Empire.

The basically "Scandinavian" aspect of the nation was little diluted during the century (1809-1917) that Finland was a part of Russia. Down to the 1890's, self-government was left pretty much intact, and in several respects it was in fact considerably extended. Only during the quarter century before 1917 did Russification threaten the constitution, the sanctity of law and the freedom of the citizen.

c Political Democracy and Economic Change. When the Russian Revolution of 1917 enabled the Finns to step forth as a sovereign nation, they entered upon an independent existence with solid anchorage in the arts of self-government and had made substantial progress toward political democracy. Meanwhile farming had been modernized; industry had developed after the 1870's; the railroad age had been ushered in during the 1860's; the telegraph and telephone services had expanded importantly after 1880; early steamship connections had grown into real steamship business; and the population of the cities had increased roughly tenfold. The people had become nationalist-conscious for the first time in their history. 1/

d. Independence. The years since 1918 witnessed notable change and advance along many lines. The population of 1920 of 3,364,000 grew to about 3,890,000 in 1939. Agrarian reform created over 100,000 new holdings and turned about 90% of the farmers into independent owners. Industrial output increased roughly four-fold. The pre-war cooperative movement, significant in both retail and wholesale trade, became even more important and a factor in manufacturing and banking as well. Financial stability and balanced budgets were the rule; between 1930 and 1938 two-fifths of the foreign debt was paid off. Meanwhile primary and secondary schools and the universities doubled or more than doubled their attendance figures, and the 8-hour day, old age, accident and sickness insurance, maternity aid, legislation for the care of needy children and State or municipally owned and operated utilities testified to the expansion of the "Social State."

16. POPULATION.

a. Population. The population of Finland in 1939 was 3,890,000. Slightly under 60% of the total lived on farming, but a substantial proportion of this group actually depended on lumbering or some other industrial employment. Some 25% lived in cities, but about one-third lived in communities that were, for all practical purposes, urban.

Most of the population (over 80%) lives south of the line drawn from Raahe on the Gulf of Finland to the northeast corner of Lake Ladoga. In the far north the density of population is about 2 per square mile; in the south, it averages 20-30.

In 1939, the ten largest cities and their populations were:

City	Population	City	Population
Helsinki	315,700	Oulu	28,600
Tampere	78,000	Lahti	27,600
Turku	75,500	Kuopio	24,800
Viipuri	74,400	Kotka	22,200
Vaasa	33,200	Pori	21,700

There were 28 other urban communities; their populations were under 20,000, and the smallest had only 300 inhabitants. 2/

b. Available Men of Military Age. Available evidence does not show the present number of males fit for military service. According to the conscription law in effect in 1939, a man entered the army in the year in which he became 21 years old. After having served, normally, for 350 days, he was placed in the reserve and was subject to call until the age of 40. He was then transferred to the militia where his liability to service ended at the age of 60. Non-coms in the regular army belonged to the reserve until the age of 55, and commissioned officers till the age of 60.

In 1930, the number of males liable to military service was as follows: 3/

Males between the years	Number
20-24	178,899
25-29	154,946
30-34	133,883
35-39	117,313
Total	585,041

In the war of 1939-1940 the Finnish army probably did not have 300,000 men under arms. Ordinarily, the number of draftees annually inducted fell considerably below the number of examinees; in 1937 and 1938, only 70-75% of the draftees were accepted for regular service. 4/

The losses in 1939-1940 came roughly to 25,000 killed and 40,000 wounded. It is probable that the losses since June, 1941, at least equal these figures. Thus it is likely that the number of men of military age killed since 1939 comes to 50,000 - which is 66% more than the total peace time standing army of the Republic.

17. ETHNIC AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS.

a. The two language groups. Throughout historic times, Swedish-speaking people have been a permanent element in the population. The number of the Swede-Finns has never been large. Today it is nearly 10% of the total (340,000). The Finnish-speaking inhabitants account for nearly all the rest; foreign groups are small. In 1930, the main alien groups were: Russians (mostly refugees), 6,250; Swedish subjects, 3,000; Germans, 1,340. The Lapps who live in the far north numbered 2,100. 5/

The Swede-Finns do not represent a separate ethnic group in the ordinary sense of the expression. Linguistically, and to a certain extent nationalistically, they stand apart, but otherwise they are an integral part of nation and country. Their place in the existing scheme of things may be indicated by means of a few generalizations:

(1) The Finns and the Swede-Finns do not represent clearly marked "racial" elements. A classification of the people of the country according to physical characteristics obliterates the language line which itself is considerably less clear than is ordinarily assumed. 6/

(2) The Swede-Finns inhabit, in the main, three coastal regions: in the south, in the southwest, and in the west. About 30% live in cities. The rest are farmers, fishermen and other lowly rural folk. The group is as much divided into economic and social classes as the Finnish-language majority. Some 96% of both language groups profess the Lutheran creed.

(3) The political loyalties of the Swede-Finns are wholly directed to Finland; their nationalism (linguistic, cultural) involves no feeling of fidelity to or desire to unite with Sweden. (The Aland Island separatists of 1917-1921 were an exception.) Perhaps 50% of them speak

Finnish at least passably well. Incidentally, a considerable portion of the Finnish-speaking element also speaks Swedish; this applies to most of those who have a secondary school education and to all who have attended a university. 7/

(4) Especially during the past 40-50 years, language or cultural nationalism has divided the nation along language lines. Most of the trouble has derived from nationalist agitators and leaders. The realities of the workaday world which make the average man's business of living what it is furnish little or no support to "language-nationalist" allegiances. This explains the circumstance that whenever the security or interest of the nation have been threatened, Finn and Swede-Finn alike have risen to defend the fatherland. The Soviet attack of 1939 furnished a telling illustration of this significant fact. There is no reason for assuming that "language-nationalism" would furnish any basis for splitting the nation on questions of foreign policy.

b. Social Stratification. Social stratification follows in the main the pattern observable in Scandinavia as a whole. It is less rigid than in Sweden and therefore closer, say, to that in Norway. Three aspects of present-day social stratification may be noted.

The first is the notable democratization of social, political and economic life during the past two generations. Political democracy has prevailed since 1906 when the principle "one man - one vote" was applied to men and women alike. Social democratization has spread notably; the so-called lower classes have fathered a large part of the middle classes of today, and some of the highest class. 8/ On the professions and on the business and political life of the nation the citizen of lowly origin, or his son--or his daughter for that matter--place a conspicuous egalitarian stamp.

Secondly, educational accomplishment largely determines social status. A college or university degree still opens doors that wealth does not and importantly aids the climber up the social ladder. Education in general has acted as a significant social leveller.

Thirdly, extremes of wealth and poverty are small. In 1935 only 20 Finns had a taxable net income of over $33,000. The number of individuals whose taxable income exceeded $11,900 was 150. Property ownership tells the same story. The number of persons owning property worth more than $725,000 was 13, and the number of those whose property exceeded $150,000 was 135. About 83,500 out of a total of 88,500 property owners taxed belonged in the $2,200 - $12,400 class. 9/ In land ownership the little fellow dominates the scene. In 1937, some 90% of the country's farms were held by independent owners of whom less than one per cent had more than 250 acres. Over 75% of the farmers cultivate acreage that does not exceed 25.10/

18. LANGUAGE.

a. Bilingualism. It was noted above that the population is Finnish-speaking to the extent of about 90%; that 10% represents the Swedish-speaking element; and that considerable bilingualism prevails. All important public documents are published in Finnish and Swedish; both languages are official. A knowledge of Swedish alone will take one a long way, but over large sections of the country, especially in the interior, Swedish does not suffice.

b. Knowledge of English. During the past two decades, English has become increasingly popular in school and out.

It was reported nearly 10 years ago that while the annual number of students of English at the Helsinki University before 1914 rarely reached 20, it was over 100 yearly by the early thirties. 11/ Yet the number of Finns who speak English or understand spoken English is not large. Interpreters would therefore in all likelihood be needed. A considerable number could probably be recruited from among the Finns. German is fairly widely known among the educated groups.

19. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PEOPLE.

a. Influence of Tradition. The influence of tradition and custom is marked but blunted, in many ways, by the rapid transformation of the economic, political and social life during the past generation or two. But as regards basic political and general democratic principles, tradition and custom have congealed view point and practice in a manner that would make the introduction of a new political scheme of things difficult and probably would require the use of force.

b. Temperament, Military Qualities. In temperament, the Finns are usually slow, stubborn, deliberate, and have considerable staying power. Military qualities were shown by the war in 1939-1940 to be of a high order. Foreign observers no less than Finnish enthusiasts agreed that the Finn is a tough, intelligent soldier. He could withstand the rigors of exacting fighting, worked well in groups and disclosed marked capacity for independent initiative and action. His stamina was frequently commented upon in terms of praise.

c. Respect for Authority. The respect for authority is considerable. Yet criticism of abuses or shortcomings is so common--in the press and on the lecture or campaign platform--as to suggest that any generalization that goes beyond the obvious is open to challenge. Politicians, the police, civil servants, legislators and cabinet ministers must submit to the daily inquest of a democracy.

d. The Attitude Toward the United States. The attitude toward the United States has been, on the whole, one of undiluted admiration. The aid given by Mr. Hoover's relief organization after 1918 has not been forgotten, and American material and moral assistance during and immediately after the war of 1939-1940 was deeply appreciated. No political problems have disturbed the relations between the two peoples. American reaction to the Finnish debt policy created universal satisfaction. Recent events, however, have changed the picture in some respects. Our association with Russia in the task of destroying Hitlerism, and Finland's association with Germany in a war against Russia, have created a situation which puzzles and distresses most if not all Finns. The Finns' claim that they have no quarrel and want no quarrel with the United States no doubt reflects a desire to escape the present dilemma without further deterioration of the relations of the two republics.

e. The Attitude Toward Great Britain. The relations with Great Britain were most cordial before 1941. Genuine friendship buttressed by important common economic interests prevailed. After the close of the Winter War, and especially since June, 1941, the situation has changed. First the British blockade and later the alliance between Great Britain and Russia put the Finns and the British in opposite camps. Of late an increasingly critical and even hostile attitude toward Great Britain has become evident. The guess may be hazarded that such attitudes are as much compounded of German views imposed on a people no longer really free as of real hostility toward Great Britain.

f. Attitude Toward Russia. The attitude toward the U.S.S.R. is well known. Russia is suspect; it is feared and hated. Fear of Russia is probably the basic determinant of the Finns' attitude toward their eastern neighbor. The history of the country lends ready support to this fear, for war has meant for centuries only one thing to the Finns: war with the Russians. The attack in 1939-1940 seemed to confirm and to justify the traditional stand, and the events since March, 1940, have done nothing to change it.

20. LIVING CONDITIONS.

a. Standard of Living. Before 1939-1940 the standard of living was relatively high--just how high is a question that involves arbitrary conclusions. According to calculations published by the International Labor Office in 1933-1934, the Finnish workers' standard of living was higher than, for instance, that of the Norwegian, the Irish and the German workers. 12/ The table in Appendix I gives a general idea of how, relatively speaking, the Finns lived about a decade ago.

The gap between rich and poor is not wide; if the standard of the poor is reasonably high, the standard of the rich is low. Not least important is the fact that the standard of living improved steadily after 1918; even the depression after 1928 checked the trend only temporarily. By the closing thirties the average Finn ate better food, wore better clothes, lived in a better home and spent more on "non-essentials" than he had twenty years earlier. For instance, the per capita consumption of wheat, coffee and sugar had nearly doubled as against 1920. 13/ There was still much room for improvement, especially with respect to housing, but past advance promised further improvement in the future.

21. LABOR CONDITIONS.

a. Industrial Capacity of Workers. The industrial capacity of the Finnish workers is, presumably, comparable to that of their Northern neighbors. The basic industries are old enough to have trained personnel renewed through processes normal to industry. Many of the industries maintain vocational instruction, and municipal trade schools likewise contribute to the training which the machine and factory require.

b. Skilled Labor Available for Hire. The normal amount of skilled labor available for hire is suggested by the number of industrial employees. In 1938, the following numbers were employed in the leading industries:

Number of Industrial Workers, 1938[14/]

Industry	Number
Mining	610
Foundries and Metal	8,700
Machine shops	35,000
Glass, pottery, etc.	15,500
Chemical	3,150
Leather, rubber	11,400
Textiles, clothing	38,150
Paper	22,200
Lumber	53,400
Food	15,550

In addition, small industry (establishments employing less than 10 persons) and the handicrafts employed some 38,000 - 40,000 persons. Seasonal employment in the lumber industry involved from 138,000 to 188,000 persons yearly, but they could be called skilled only in felling, transporting and loading timber. 15/

The war in 1939-1940 and since June, 1941, led to large-scale mobilization of man power which seriously depleted the available labor supply. It was reported in the autumn of 1941 that shortage of labor was felt in industry, wood cutting, and in farming. 16/ During the present war, labor is likely to be at a premium, and while unemployment in some fields has become a problem, large reservoirs of available labor will probably not appear until Finland has ceased fighting.

c. Rates of pay of Labor. In terms of dollars and cents, Finnish labor received low wages. Except for the fact that the cost of living in the country is normally low, the money wages received would have meant starvation.[17] In 1938, the average hourly wage and average annual income in the most important branches of industry were as follows:

Average Wages of Industrial Workers, 1938[18]
(in Fmk.)

Industry	Wage per hour	Income per year
Foundries, metal	7.49	17,115
Machine shops	9.01	21,766
Glass, pottery, etc.	10.47	23,174
Textile, clothing	7.13-7.78	17,200-18,600
Paper, pulp	7.16-8.50	17,900-19,600
Lumber	7.18	16,400

This meant wages ranging from 16 cents to 23 cents per hour, and annual incomes that varied from about $350 to about $500.

Agricultural labor was paid on an equally modest scale. A large part of the workers in this category received, in addition to a money wage, room with board, heat, light, etc. In such instances, the annual money income in 1940 averaged about $115. Those who boarded out were paid roughly from 70 to 90 cents per day. 19/

22. PUBLIC HEALTH, SANITATION AND HOSPITALS.

Data on this section were furnished the Office of the Surgeon General, War Department, which prepared a Resume for inclusion in the body of the War Department Strategic Survey as Par. 22 on public health, sanitation, and hospitals. A copy of the Resume has been forwarded by the Office of the Surgeon General to the East European Section of the Military Intelligence Division.

23. EDUCATION

a. General. The Finns boast that theirs is one of the most literate and best educated nations in the world. Illiteracy among Finns 15 years old or over being less than 1%, the claim is not unreasonable, but some of its implications need not be taken too seriously.

The system of national elementary schools was established in 1866. While a compulsory attendance law dates only from 1921, the practice of sending children to school became almost universal much earlier. Since 1921, every community with 20 or more children of school age must maintain a public school. These schools usually have 6 grades. Total primary school attendance in 1938 was 492,400.

The secondary schools are mostly co-educational, although separate boys' and girls' schools are numerous. Usually they have 8 classes. The first 5 constitute a "middle school." The last 3 are an "upper school" from which the pupil may enter college, university or special higher institutions. Attendance in 1938-1939 was 53,700. Somewhat more than 50% came from so-called lower class homes. Nearly one-half of the secondary schools are maintained by the State; the rest are private but receive public funds and are State-controlled. Some charge tution fees which average probably not more than $4.00 per year.

The higher institutions of learning minister to over 9,500 students annually. No tuition fees are charged in the State institutions, and those charged by the private universities (two) are very low. 20/

For all practical purposes, general education is thus free from top to bottom. This applies with only minor modification to trade and professional schools as well.

b. Effect of Educational System on National Life. It may be said that much of the Finns' ways of looking at things derive from school experience and training. This applies especially to so-called "national subjects." National history, language, literature, etc., are much emphasized, frequently in a romanticized manner. The system makes for patriotic citizenship; it also contributes to narrow nationalism.

c. Effect of Educational System on Foreign Policy. Foreign relations and affairs are either poorly taught or not taught at all. Judging by our American standards, these fields are almost completely neglected. School and university make, on the whole, only a negligible contribution to the ordinary citizen's knowledge or understanding of foreign affairs. Except in a general way, the system does not influence the formulation of foreign policy.

24. RELIGION.

In terms of statistics, the Finns are a religious people: some 96% of the nation belong to the Lutheran church. Many people, however, only nominally support the church; yet but 64,000 individuals have placed themselves in the so-called civil registry. 21/ It is a safe guess that most members of the left wing and liberal groups are only passively religious, although for census and other purposes the majority remain within the fold.

Just how religion has affected the national spirit it is hard to say. Some parts of the country display more active religion and stricter conformity than others. In some groups outward conformity is more important than the inner substance. Yet love of country and a sturdy national spirit follow neither sectional nor class lines, as the 1939-1940 war clearly demonstrated. It would be difficult to prove that religion is a main determinant of Finnish national spirit.

25. PUBLIC ORDER AND POLICE.

a. Public Order. The respect for law and order is marked, although crimes against the person and against property assume fair proportions in the annual record of the nation's life. A long tradition of life regulated by law, the struggle against Russification 30-40 years ago, and the emphasis which was placed on the sanctity of law and constitution during that conflict, have left a respect for law that is strong.

b. The Police. The police force is locally chosen but subject to the provincial governor who in turn is responsible to the Ministry of the Interior. The police is thus part of the national set-up for the maintenance of law and order. The administrative relationships may be suggested in this way: Ministry of the interior -> provincial governor -> local police chief -> local police force.

While the police has the reputation of being honest and able to perform its usual functions, it is not equal to our American police in handling crowds or in dealing with sudden emergencies. Its personnel has been recruited during the past decade from a higher type of men than formerly, and the job of a police officer has consequently acquired higher social status and greater respectability. The normal police force numbers about 4,500 men. There is also a political police.

26. PRESS, PROPAGANDA, CENSORSHIP

a. The Press. In 1939, the number of newspapers published was 176. Of these, 12 were dailies, 36 appeared 6 times a week, and 68 three times a week. Of the total, 150 were in Finnish, 25 in Swedish and one was bilingual.[22]

To an overwhelming degree, the press is a party press. A newspaper is, almost invariably, a political party organ. Excepting the agrarian Ilkka, the leading papers are published in Helsinki. In political and party matters, the provincial and capital papers hew to the same line. To follow the newspapers in the capital means to hold a finger on the pulse of the provincial press also.

All newspapers are mostly sold by subscription, perhaps to the extent of 80-85%; news-stand sales are thus of minor importance. In this sense, the newspapers have not yet been fully brought out in the street. 23/ Circulation is usually steady. Consequently special features as bait to readers are rare.

The papers are not beyond the means of an ordinary reader. They reach deep into the economic and social scale, and normally are the chief formulators of public opinion. A newspaper is a journal of opinion and a news sheet. The press of the left and center parties is more widely read than the strength of the parties suggests, while the rightist papers do not reach much beyond the limits of their party support. The leading Socialist paper, for instance, is read widely outside the socialist fold because it is the leading organ of a party that has been the largest political organization in the country for over a generation. The conservative Uusi Suomi, on the other hand, does not correspondingly reach groups that are, in terms of economic and social criteria, below the levels on which its regular readers move.

The main newspapers, roughly in the order of their importance, are:

(1) Helsingin Sanomat (Helsinki News). Liberal or progressive; partly independent during the past few years. Circulation probably about 100.000. While the

Liberal party now has only 3% of the seats in the Parliament, its press continues to occupy a leading position.

(2) Suomen Sosialidemokraatti (Finnish Social Democrat). Main sheet of the Socialist party; circulation probably about 80,000. The party it represents controls 42.5% of the seats in the legislature.

(3) Ilkka. Leading paper of the small farmers' (Agrarian Union) party which has 28% of the seats in the legislature. It is published in Vaasa and has a circulation of about 40,000.

(4) Uusi Suomi (New Finland). Main organ of the conservative or Coalition party which holds 13.5% of the seats in the legislature. Circulation probably about 40,000.

(5) Hufvudstadsbladet (Capital News). The leading newspaper of the Swede-Finn group that has 9% of the seats in the Parliament. Its circulation probably approximates 70,000.

(6) Ajan Suunta (Trend of the Times). The main paper of the rightist Patriotic People's Party (I.K.L.). Both the paper and the party date from 1933 and have a Fascist coloration. They have "understood" and "appreciated" Hitlerite Germany from the start, but have failed to capture the electorate: in 1933. they got 7% of the seats in the legislature; in 1936, they held their own with 7%; in the 1939 elections they dropped to 4%. The circulation of the paper is probably about 20,000.

(7) Suomen Kuvalehti (Illustrated Finland News). Perhaps because it is the only illustrated Finnish weekly, this magazine has enjoyed considerable popularity for the past 10-15 years. In November, 1941, its circulation was reported as 135,000. Originally non-partisan in

domestic and foreign affairs, it has become pro-German, anti-American, anti-Jewish and anti-British. Its tenor as revealed by available excerpts and summaries of its content is hostile to the cause of the United Nations. It accepts and upholds the idea that East Karelia must be "liberated" and annexed by Finland. 24/

b. Radio. Before 1939, the radio became increasingly important in the life of the nation. In that year, the General Radio Company of Finland--in which the State has owned over 90% of the stock since 1926--licensed 358,577 radio receiving sets, which meant roughly 1 radio for every 10 persons. 25/ Yet it is doubtful that the radio had become, by 1939, a competitor of the press as a formulator of public opinion. News and news comment accounted for only about 10% of the radio programs before the outbreak of the present war. It could therefore be said that in the contest between ear and eye the eyes had it. 26/

The situation has undoubtedly changed since 1939. Censorship of the press was non-existent before the autumn of that year. Now foreign and domestic news is censored. But radio news from abroad is still received without government interference.

At present the radio would, therefore, be the best instrument for propaganda from abroad. It seems safe to assume that a sufficiently large number of the Finnish radios are equipped for short-wave reception to make it possible to reach many listeners. The most effective procedure would probably be to conduct the propaganda with the following in mind:

(1) The problem is not one of trying to instil new political doctrine. The Finns do not need indoctrina-

tion in democratic principles and would probably resent it.

(2) The question is how to present fact and interpretation that will contribute to a change of policy that will bring Finland to our side in the present war. Objective presentation of fact, in the proper idiom--using the word in its widest sense--should aid in making a change of policy more than a possibility.

SECTION IV

POLITICAL

27. GOVERNMENT

Finland is a constitutional republic. Some elements of the constitution go back to the eighteenth century, but most date from 1906 when the present one-chamber legislature and universal suffrage were established, and from 1919, when the republican form of government was introduced.

a. The President.

The president is chosen for six years by an electoral college of 300 which is elected by universal suffrage. Excepting minor matters, the president functions in and through the Cabinet. His decisions must be countersigned by the appropriate minister or ministers.[27]

b. The Cabinet.

The Cabinet consists of a Prime Minister and a number of ministers, normally 10 (Foreign Affairs, Justice, Interior, Defense , Finance, Education, Agriculture, Communications, Trade, Social Affairs), although ministers without portfolio are also appointed on occasion. In the autumn of 1939, a new ministry, that of Supply was established. It is likely to remain for some time a vital part of the government.

The constitution of 1919 provides that the Cabinet must enjoy the confidence of the legislature. It resigns when it no longer commands a majority in the parliament.

c. The Legislature.

The one-chamber legislature is elected for 3-year periods by universal suffrage. Women as well as men sit in it; the number of women legislators has varied from

9 to 19, and ordinarily over one-half of them have come from the Social Democratic party.

d. Composition of Cabinets

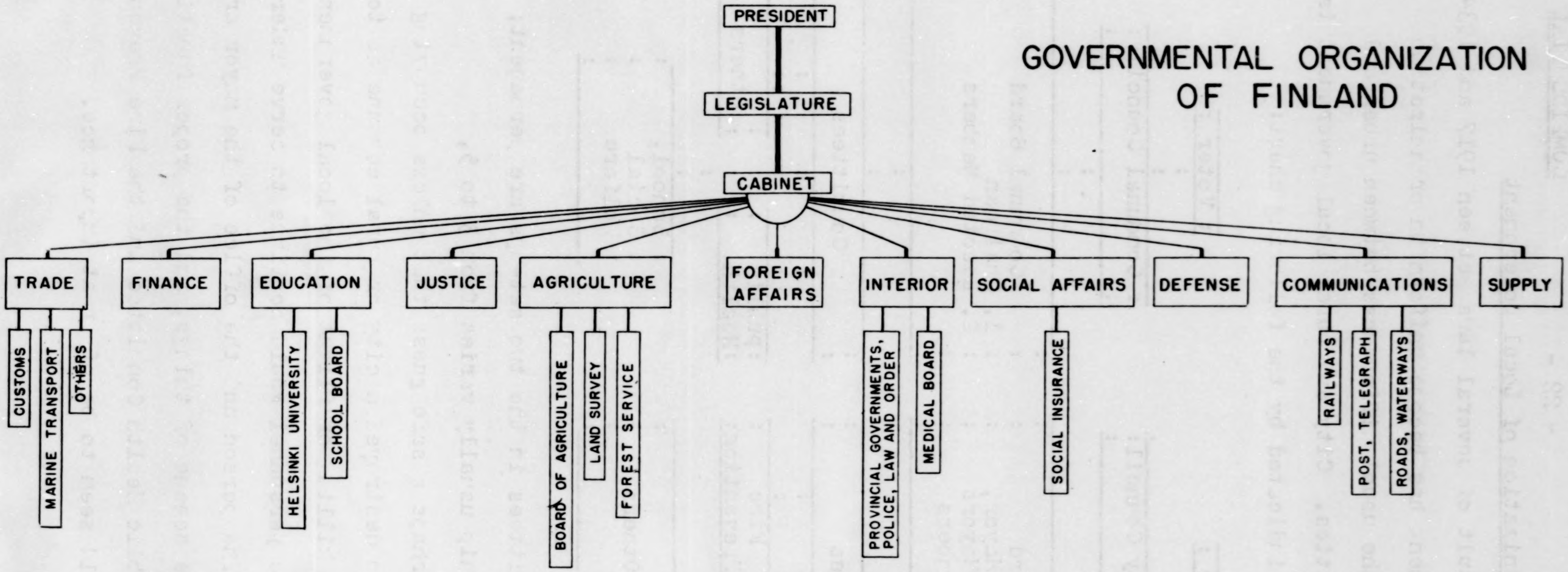
Because no political party since 1919 has obtained a majority of the seats in the legislature, ministries have ordinarily been coalition governments. The most significant of the coalition governments was established in 1936, when the socialists and the small farmers --. together they controlled 68% of the legislature -- joined hands and for the first time in the history of the republic provided the nation with a farmer-worker cabinet.

Of the 21 ministries between 1919 and 1941, nine were headed by Progressives, six by Agrarians, five by Conservatives and one by a Social Democrat. For about a decade, Progressives served as prime ministers; for about six years, Agrarians headed the government; a Social Democrat for a year; and five cabinets under Conservative premiers spanned in all about three years.

e. Organization of National Government

The following chart indicates the set-up of the national government. As regards internal administration, the Ministry of the Interior is obviously most important.

GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATION OF FINLAND



NOTE - ONLY THE MORE IMPORTANT BOARDS OF THE VARIOUS MINISTRIES ARE INDICATED

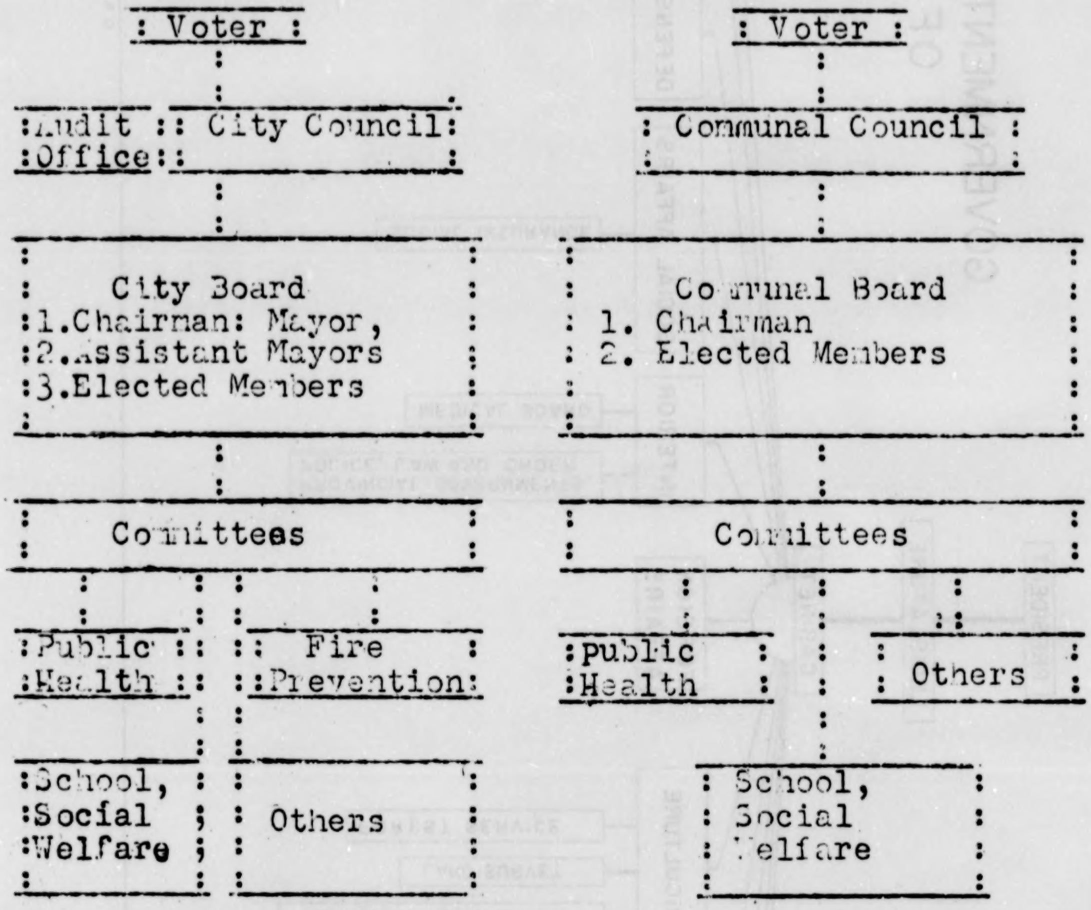
NUMBER 425 APRIL 6, 1942

DRAWN IN THE GEOGRAPHIC DIVISION, C.O.I.

RESTRICTED

f. Organization of Local Government

As a result of several laws between 1917 and 1934, local government has become uniform in organization except for the usual differences between urban and rural communities. City and rural local government is organized as indicated by the following chart:



The committees in the two set-ups are permanent; their membership usually varies from 3 to 5,

It is perhaps a safe guess that unless occupying forces have so destroyed a city or rural commune as to result in the killing or flight of the local government personnel, the personnel would continue to serve under occupation. The person and the office of the mayor are central in the scheme of things, and the proper functioning of the Public Health Committee and the Fire Prevention Committee would seem to be of great importance.

28. POLITICAL PARTIES

Since the founding of the republic, there have been five or six political parties large enough to deserve mention. In the order of their size and voting strength in the Parliament they are: the Socialists, (Social Democrats); the small farmers, (Agrarian Union); the conservatives, (Coalition Party); the Swede-Finns, (Swedish People's Party); the progressives, (National Progressive Party); and the communists. The communists no longer count as an ordinary political organization because their party was outlawed in 1929.

a. The Social Democratic Party.

Excepting the year 1929, when the socialists got one seat less than the small farmers (59 and 60, respectively), this party has been the largest in the country since 1906. Its support comes not only from industrial workers but also from agricultural labor, small farmers and a scattering of votes from the "classes."

Theoretically Marxian and working for socialization according to the familiar blue-print, the party is gradualist, evolutionary. It reflects the transformation observable in post-war socialism in Sweden, for example. Bolshevism and the Soviet experiment it rejects without qualification. In 1939-1940, and again in 1941, the party joined hands with the others in the defense against Russia, and its members were as conspicuously patriotic as other citizens.

Leaders: V. Tanner, K. Harvala, M. Pekkala, J.V. Keto, V. Hakkila.[28] These and other leaders of the party are presumably all friendly toward the United States.

b. The Agrarian Union.

Founded in 1905 to further the interests of the small farmer, the party at first represented a protest of the rural world against the city. Its views and objectives have broadened with the passage of years. Especially since close cooperation with the socialists was begun in 1936, the group has become one of the two main sources of democratic strength in the republic.

Leaders; J. E. Sunila, A. Kukkonen, J. Moilkkanen, K. E. Linna, K. T. Jutila. These and other leaders of the group presumably are all friendly toward the United States.

c. Coalition or National Union Party.

This party represents the conservative groups among the Finnish-language group. It claims to be the special representative of the nationalist elements. It does represent property and the segments in the population that frown upon the new and the untested in social and economic policy.

Leaders: P. E. Svinhufvud, A. Tulenheimo, J. K. Paasikivi, R. Erich; probably all friendly toward the United States.

d. National Progressive Party.

While the strength of the progressives has declined in the legislature - from 17 seats in 1924 to 6 in 1939 - their general influence still remains considerable. Their program may be called liberal in the American or Britiah sense of the word. Their leading newspaper, the Helsingin Sanomat is the largest as it is in many ways the best of the newspapers in the country.

Leaders: R. Ryti, A. Cajander, O. Mantere, R. Holsti, J. Stahlberg, Eljas Erkko; all presumably friendly to the United States.

e. The Swedish People's Party.

Resting almost wholly on so-called language and cultural interests of the Swedish-speaking part of the population, this party includes various political shades of opinion. Its stand has been conservative with regard to many economic and social problems, although it includes elements that are anything but conservative.

Leaders: G. Von Born, R. Witting, A. Andersson, R. Colliander, R. Furuhjelm; nothing known to indicate that they are not friendly toward the United States, except that Witting, the present Foreign Minister, has shown pro-German inclinations.

f. The Communists.

After the upheaval of 1917 in Russia, the Finnish left wing socialists tried to introduce a worker's dictatorship in Finland. They secured control of the Social Democratic Party and in January 1918 began an attempt to capture government and nation. The failure of this attempt discredited the leftist leaders, many of whom fled to Russia. Seeking cover under various party designations communists took part in elections in 1922-1929. In the latter year communism was outlawed, and consequently no electoral measure of its strength has been available since 1929. The peak of its strength was probably reached in 1922 when 13.5% of the seats in the legislature went to persons committed to Moscow's way.

g. The Patriotic People's Party (I.K.L.)

Founded in 1933 as one of the consequences of the political disturbance that lead to the outlawing of Communism, the I.K.L. draws its support from various primarily conservative sources. It has shown a marked inclination toward a worship of Nazi creeds, but it is likely that an open adoption of Nazism would have reduced its influence close to zero. The group never obtained more than 7% of the seats in the legislature (1933 and 1936). In 1939, despite a strenuous campaign, the I.K.L.

dropped to 4%. A harsh party press and noisy representatives in the parliament gave it publicity in Finland and abroad quite out of proportion to its real strength.

Leaders: K. Kares, E. Simojoki, R. Ala-Kulju, B. Salmiala, H. Riipinen. If anti-American feeling is present in Finland, it would probably be found in this group.

The composition of the legislature is indicated by the following table:

PARTY COMPOSITION OF THE LEGISLATURE, 1919-1939.[29]

Election year	Socialists	Agrarians	Coalition	Progresives	Swede-Finns	Communists	I.K.L.	Others
1919	80	42	28	26	22	-	-	2
1922	53	45	35	15	25	27	-	-
1924	60	44	38	17	23	18	-	-
1927	60	52	34	10	24	20	-	-
1929	59	60	28	7	23	23	-	-
1930	66	59	42	11	21	-	-	1
1933	78	53	18	11	21	-	14	5
1936	83	53	28	7	21	-	14	2
1939	85	56	25	6	18	-	8	2

29. FOREIGN POLICY

a. General

Until 1935 Finland's foreign policy was free from specific orientation, beyond the effort to keep the country out of commitments that might spell trouble. Between 1919 and the middle twenties, some Foreign Ministers (Holsti, for instance) worked for alliances or near-alliances with the Baltic States, Poland or the general "cordon sanitaire" of the years after the first World War. Such attempts were rejected by the legislature, however, and the nation remained free from foreign entanglements.

Meanwhile relations with the other Scandinavian states became close, especially as the Aland Island controversy with Sweden receded into the background. Historically and in other ways the drawing toward the country's northern neighbors was natural. Closer identification of the republic with Sweden, Norway and Denmark became open and clear-cut in December, 1935, when the Finnish legislature unanimously resolved that henceforth foreign relations should be conducted in closest possible cooperation with the other states of the North. The resolution was an emphatic way of saying that friendly relations with all countries in time of peace, and complete neutrality in the event of war, would henceforth be Finland's policy in cooperation with her Northern neighbors. To this line the country hewed until the Soviet attack in November, 1939.

b. Attitude toward the United States.

Finland's attitude toward the United States has been friendly throughout. Only since June, 1941 have troublesome problems arisen. (See above page 9).

c. Policies toward important neighbors.

(1) Russia. Before 1939, relations were correct if not conspicuously friendly. A non-aggression pact and an arbitration agreement existed, but did not suffice to prevent the Russian attack of November, 1939.

(2) Germany. Before 1940, relations were friendly, without treaty or other commitments. The war of 1939-1940 with Russia put a severe strain on those Finns who had expected Hitlerite Germany not to "allow" a Russian attack on Finland, nor did the Moscow peace of March, 1940, ease the situation. What the present commitments toward Germany are--beyond the signing of the Anti-Comintern Pact and cooperation in the war against Russia--are matters of conjecture

(3) Scandinavia. Relations with Sweden have continued friendly and intimate. In the autumn of 1940, some kind of union between the two countries was discussed but Russian pressure prevented a real consideration of the

problem. Until December, 1941, the Norwegian government-in-exile maintained a Legation in Helsinki--an illustration of Finnish attitudes toward Norway. As regards Denmark, relations are as normal, it appears, as the abnormal position of the two countries allows.

30. ALIEN GROUPS

Excepting the German troops now in Finland there are in the country no alien groups hostile to the United States.

SECTION V.

ECONOMIC

31. GENERAL.

The Winter War imposed a heavy strain upon the economic life of the nation. The territorial cessions contained in the Peace of Moscow in March, 1940, made a bad situation worse. The regions that were turned over to the U.S.S.R. contained 10-12 per cent of the forests, farming land, railroads and industries of the country. While the territory then lost had been recovered by the end of 1941, it is highly probable that even under most favorable circumstances considerable time and effort will be needed to bring back the areas in question to their productivity before the war of 1939-1940 began. These circumstances should be kept in mind in assessing the present economic importance of Finland as revealed by basic resources and the industrial set-up of the nation.

a. Mineral resources. The mineral deposits include iron, zinc, nickel, copper, gold, silver and some other minerals, but most of them occur in small quantities or are of low grade. No coal, oil, salts or phosphate have been located. Prospecting over the past decade sustains some hope that larger iron ore deposits may be found, but to-date the exploitable minerals are limited, for all practical purposes, to copper, nickel and zinc.

(1) Copper. To date copper is the most important mineral mined. The deposit, located at Outokumpu, was found in 1910 and is owned and exploited by the State. It is estimated to contain 20,000,000 tons of 4% copper ore. During the past few years about 400,000 tons of ore have been mined annually (refining is by flotation). The production yields about 12,000 tons of blister copper,

smelted at the State-owned plant at Imatra. 30/ In addition, 60,000 tons of sulphur, 80,000 tons of purple (iron) ore, 1,800 kilograms of silver and 150 kilograms of gold are obtained. In 1938, plans for obtaining 2,000 tons of zinc were made.

(2) Nickel. Nickel was discovered in 1921 in Petsamo. The deposit is owned by the State and was leased in 1934 to the Petsamo Nickel Co., a subsidiary of the English Mond Nickel Co. which is a subsidiary of the International Nickel Co.

Estimates indicate deposits of some 5,000,000 tons. The ore contains about 2% nickel and 1.5% copper. Necessary roads, shafts, hydro-electric plant, houses for workers, etc., were constructed by the Petsamo Nickel Co., and plans called for production to begin in 1941. The output was to be 18-20 million pounds of nickel yearly. The Winter War of 1939-1940 prevented the start of production. In March, 1942, Mr. Henry Wingate, Secretary of the International Nickel Co., furnished information tending to show that smelting operations began in October, 1941; that the output after March, 1942, might be at the rate of 8,100 long tons of nickel in matte per year; and that the former manager of the project was of the opinion that the production could conceivably be stepped up to 20,000 tons in the future. 31/

(3) Zinc. The Orijarvi mine in southwestern Finland (originally an iron mine) has been exploited in recent years primarily for its yield of zinc, lead and copper. The production is small: 2,400 tons of 50% zinc, 1,500 tons of 20% copper, and 600 tons of 55% lead concentrate. Some other mines--Pitkaranta, for instance, on the northeast coast of Lake Ladoga--produce these metals

in still smaller quantities.

Recent discoveries of molybdenum in Matasvaara, sulphur pyrites in four localities, nickel at Nivala, copper at Ylojarvi and iron ore at Vuolijoki, may lead in the future to more impressive achievement, but to date the picture is dominated by the three items summarized above. 32/

b. Agricultural Resources. The agricultural resources are limited, in that self-sufficiency and exportable surpluses were not achieved before 1939. Butter, eggs, and cheese were an exception; in this category, the exports exceeded imports in 1938 by 659,842,000 Finnmarks, and consisted of 17,100 tons of butter, 7,000 tons of eggs, and 6,800 tons of cheese. Certain meats and live animals also showed an export surplus which amounted, however, to only about one-fifteenth of the surplus represented by the dairy products mentioned. 33/ Yet the two decades before 1939 witnessed a trend toward agricultural and general food self-sufficiency. As early as 1933, the following situation existed: of foods in general, 74.2% were home-grown or produced; of wheat, 52.4%; of rye, 87.2%; of oats, 98.9%; and of potatoes, 99.6%; of vegetables, 71.0%. During the years following these figures were raised somewhat. 34/

The livestock resources were as follows in 1939: 35/ cattle, 1,398,905 (only those over 2 years are included); horses, 312,207 (only those over 3 years are included); sheep, 990,951; pigs, 506,837; goats, 9,766.

Since 1939, the picture has changed radically. War and isolation from customary export and import markets have disrupted food production, created domestic transportation problems disastrous for food distribution, and led to ever more drastic rationing. Since the food situation in Finland is delineated in a special report now being prepared by Dr. J. A. Morrison, only some of its main features are mentioned here.

(1) The crops in 1940 and 1941 were considerably below normal; poor weather, lack of labor and fertilizers, and disruption caused by the war effort combined to produce this result. October 1941 estimates by the Finnish Board of Agriculture indicated that not one of the crops of the 1941 harvest would be even medium, and that the all-important potato and barley crops would be considerably below medium. 36/

(2) By October, 1941, the transportation system had broken down to the point where it no longer met the needs of distribution of foods. Thus even the foodstuffs still available were not well distributed, and acute shortages--especially in urban communities--had become the order of the day. Hoarding and black trade added to the difficulties. 37/

(3) Rationing dates from 1939-1940. By the autumn of 1941, it covered a wide range of foods and other commodities. The rationed quantities of bread, fats, meat, milk, fish, sugar, coffee, eggs, etc., appear to have ranged roughly from one-fourth to one-half of the quantities normally consumed, and certain items--meats, for example--could not be had at all in some localities, while coffee had disappeared altogether and could only be obtained in the black market. Fresh fruit had likewise disappeared. There was no sign of relief ahead as the country faced the winter of 1941-1942. 38/

c. Forest resources. While statistics in the late thirties classified about 59% of the population as agrarian, a considerable number of the farmers were dependent on industry. Roughly one-sixth of the annual farmer's income came from the industrial exploitation of forests, the greatest single resource of the nation. About 65% of the seasonal labor used in cutting and transporting timber was furnished by farmers or members of their families. 39/

The country is rich in forests: some 73% of the area is forest land. The number of species is limited, however: pine represents 44.4% of the annual growth; spruce comes next with 27.6%; birch is third with 23.2%; and aspen and alder account for 4.6%.

The ownership of the forests was distributed, after the Moscow Peace of March, 1940, as follows: private owners (farmers, etc.) 54.9%; the State, 32.1%; corporations (including those in which the State has a controlling share, such as the Enso-Gutzeit Co.) 9.7%; the communes, 1.9%; the church 1.4%. Incidentally, the percentages were nearly the same before 1939. State-owned forests before the Winter War came to 37.2%. 40/

In addition to sustaining lumber, paper and pulp industries, the forests yielded large quantities of building material and fire wood for domestic use. In the middle thirties, nearly 20,000,000 cubic meters of wood were used annually at home while slightly less than 17,000,000 cubic meters represented the quantity exported either as lumber, paper, pulp, or plywood.

The forests have become the main source of fuel as a result of the disappearance of most of coal and oil imports since 1941. There is plenty of wood available. But in 1939-1940, only one-sixth of the normal amount of timber was felled, and in 1940-1941, roughly two-thirds. The country seemed to be on the way to normal timber cutting when the war began in June 1941. Lack of labor and mounting transportation difficulties prevented the full utilization of the timber cut, and consequently the fuel needs of many localities were not met. Helsinki, for example, was reported to have (in the autumn of 1941) only 18% of its fuel requirements available. With the approach of winter, the fuel situation was getting "well nigh desperate." 41/

d. Fishery resources. In 1939, nearly 7,000 families engaged in fishing and presumably depended mainly on fishing for a livelihood. About two-sevenths of the families lived in the Viipuri province, and the same proportion in the southwestern or Turku-Pori province. The total catch in 1938 was 27,731 tons (in 1939, 25,366 tons). Fishing thus did not represent an important business. It had been declining, in fact, for several years before 1939. While canning and preserving of fish had become industrialized, the output appears to have been so small as not to warrant inclusion in official statistics.

The catch of lake and river fishing amounted roughly to one-fifth of the sea fishing. Fishing on the Petsamo coast amounted to even less. On the south and west coast of the country, the Baltic herring accounted for nearly one-half of the annual catch. 42/

32. MANUFACTURING.

a. General. Finnish industry falls into two broad categories. One is the group of export industries, and the other the group that produces wholly or mainly for the domestic market.

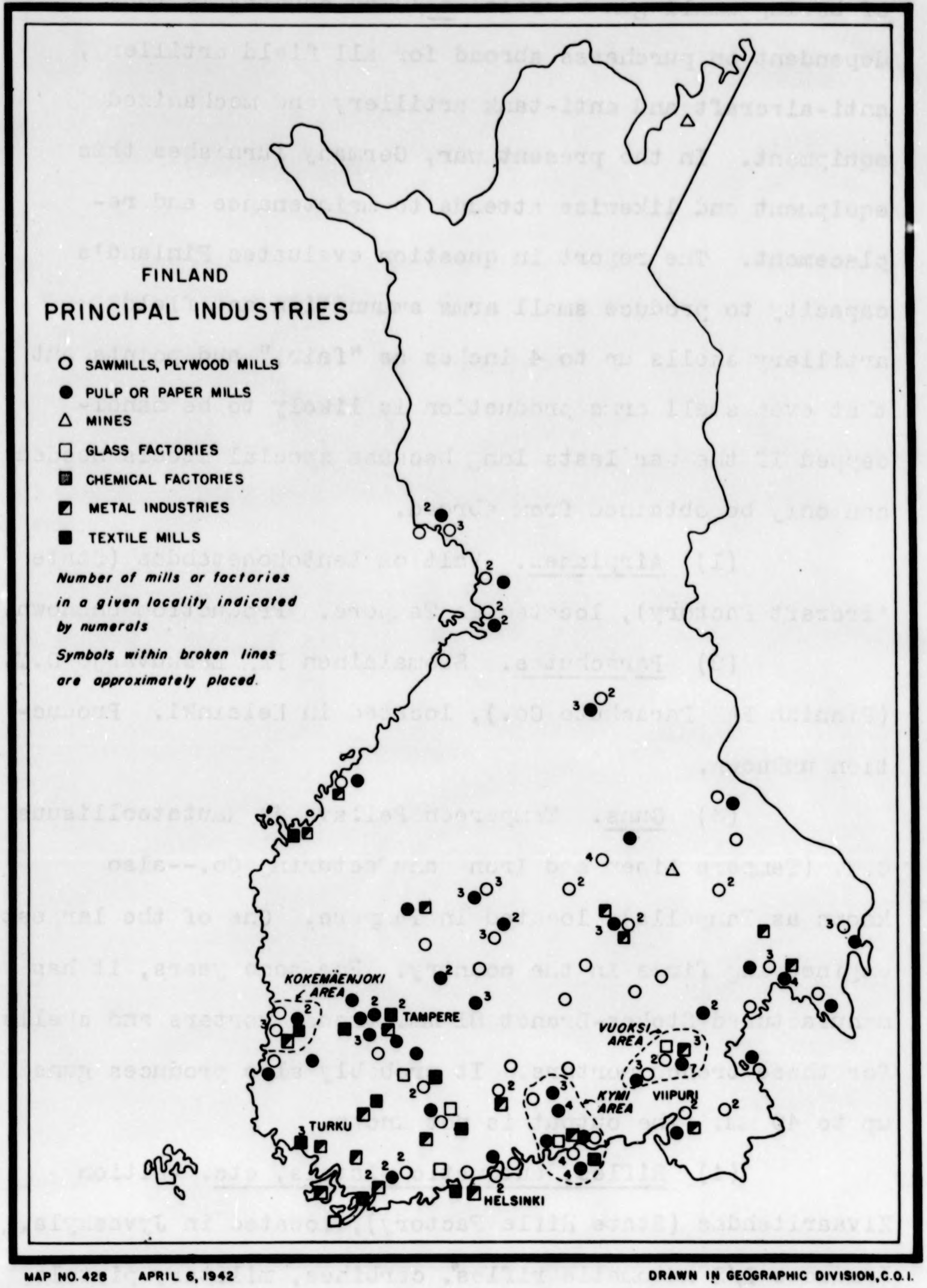
The export industries (paper, pulp and various wood products) furnish about 80% of the total of Finland's exports. They use domestic raw materials, almost exclusively. Roughly 50% of these industries are located on or near the coast, and nearly all the rest is found in the lake region inland.

The industries producing for the domestic market exist, to a large degree, on imported raw materials. The textile industry is a good illustration; iron, machines, glass, clothing, tobacco, leather, rubber, and sugar serve equally well. Many of the "domestic" industries find only 10% of their raw materials at home and some none. The rest comes from abroad, and if access to sources for foreign raw materials is lost, disaster results almost as surely as in the case of the export industries which, while independent of outside sources with regard to raw materials, are paralyzed as soon as markets abroad can no longer be reached.

b. Principal industrial cities. The leading industrial cities are, in the order of their importance, Helsinki, Tampere, Turku and Viipuri. Other significant industrial regions are the Kymi River Valley, the Vuoksi Valley, and Pori area. Of the 58,500 industrial workers in the Uusimaa province in 1938, Helsinki accounted for over 30,000, divided among more than 600 plants. Tampere similarly led the procession in the Häme province. The industrial cities mentioned produce primarily for the domestic market. The map on the page following indicates the location of the chief industrial regions.

c. Industries of a military nature. The Finnish armament industry is very small. Normally it produces only rifles, light automatics, pistols, light machine guns, and trench mortars. The Weekly Armaments Report of the British Ministry of Economic Warfare, reported last August

FREE



MAP NO. 428 APRIL 6, 1942 DRAWN IN GEOGRAPHIC DIVISION, C.O.I.

however, that Finland had one firm (not named) capable of boring small gun barrels. 43/ The country is thus dependent on purchases abroad for all field artillery, anti-aircraft and anti-tank artillery and mechanized equipment. In the present war, Germany furnishes this equipment and likewise attends to maintenance and replacement. The report in question evaluates Finland's capacity to produce small arms ammunition and field artillery shells up to 4 inches as "fair," and points out that even small arms production is likely to be handicapped if the war lasts long because special steels needed can only be obtained from abroad.

(1) Airplanes. Valtion Lentokonetehdas (State Aircraft Factory), located in Tampere. Production unknown.

(2) Parachutes. Suomalainen PAK Laskuvarjo O.Y. (Finnish PAK Parachute Co.), located in Helsinki. Production unknown.

(3) Guns. Tampereen Pellava ja Rautateollisuus O.Y. (Tampere Linen and Iron Manufacturing Co.--also known as Tampella), located in Tampere. One of the largest engineering firms in the country. For some years, it has manufactured Stokes-Brandt 81 mm. trench mortars and shells for these trench mortars. It probably also produces guns up to 40 mm. The output is not known.

(4) Rifles, automatic pistols, etc. Valtion Kivaaritehdas (State Rifle Factory), located in Jyvaskyla. Produces L/S automatic rifles, carbines, military pistols and, to some extent, machine guns. The firm has also done a good deal of experimental work on other rifles, machine guns, a 13.2 mm. anti-tank gun mounted on wheels and a 20 mm. aircraft cannon. According to the British Weekly Armaments Report mentioned, it is not known whether

these types are actually produced. In 1938, the personnel numbered 400.

O. Y. Tikkakoski A.B. (Tikkakoski Co.), located in Helsinki. 44/ It is claimed that this factory was acquired by German interests late in 1939, and that it is now "virtually under German control," but no evidence has been presented to substantiate the claim. The firm produces the "Suomi" automatic pistol(and the 50-round and 70-round magazines with which it is charged) perhaps at the rate of 2,000 per month; a Maxim water-cooled heavy machine gun (09/1932) which can be easily converted to anti-aircraft use; various types of barrels for infantry rifles and M.G.'s; metal M. G. ammunition belts, cartridge cases, armor piercing bullets and parabellum pistol cartridges. In May 1941, the plant is reported to have employed 800 workers.

(5) Cartridges. Valtion Patruunatehdas (State Cartridge Factory), located in Lapua. Production unknown.

O. Y. Sako A.B. (Sako Co.), located in Riihimaki. This factory is reported to make small arms ammunition, and shells up to 4 inches.

(6) Shells. Wartsila Koncernen A. B. Kone ja Silta (Wartsila Co. Kone ja Silta), located in Helsinki. Production unknown.

O. Y. Ammus (Shell Co.), located in Rauma. Seemingly established shortly before the 1939-1940 war, it produces 10.5 cm. howitzer shells; the output is probably very small.

44/ The British Weekly Armaments Report locates this concern in an unnamed place 17 kilometers from Jyvaskyla in central Finland. The author of the Report seems to confuse the Tikkakoski Co. with the State Cartridge Factory (which he does not mention) in Vihtavuori, 17 kilometers from Jyvaskyla.

Porin Konepaja O. Y. (Pori Machine Co.), located in Pori. This plant produces high explosive shells; quantity not known.

Crichton-Vulcan Co., located in Turku. In April, 1941, this shipbuilding concern ran a shell production department which employed 600 persons in three shifts of 200.

O. Y. Sako Co. See (5), p.37.

(7) Gunpowder and Caps. Valtion Ruutitehdas (State Powder Factory), located in Vihtavuori, 17 kilometers north of Jyvaskyla. Production unknown.

(8) Fuses. O. Y. Sytytin (Fuse Co.), located in Helsinki. The company makes time fuses and percussion fuses ("second only to Bofors in the Northern countries"), electrical accessories, and is known to have made 13.2 mm. cartridge cases.

Suomen Forsiitti-Dynamiitti O. Y. (Forcite and Dynamite Co. of Finland). Located in Hanko, this firm produces safety fuses.

(9) Other. Electrokemiska A. B. (Electro-Chemical Co.). Located in Helsinki; production unknown.

The Sandviken ship building works in Helsinki. According to a Helsinki Legation telegram of February 14, 1942 (No. 120; Secret), this firm had 10 motor torpedo boats under construction at the time, and it was also reported that the construction of a Finnish torpedo factory was contemplated.

Sulphite cellulose pulp, which is used in the production of explosives, was manufactured by many of the pulp factories. In 1938, the total output came to 685,700 tons. 45/

Industrial production of more general military significance is listed in Appendix II.

33. UTILITIES.

a. Capacity of Power Plants. An over-all view of the situation is given by the following table. The utilization of water power is detailed in Appendix III.

Industrial Use of Power, H.P., 1938-1939[46]

	Water	Steam	Oil and Gas	Electric
1938	653,265	620,386	20,180	960,574
1939	486,507	607,004	19,145	881,095

b. Ice Plants. No specific information regarding ice plants has been found. All cities presumably have ice companies which cut ice in winter, store it and sell it during the warm season.

c. Water, Gas Works, Sanitary Installations.[47] The rural regions are less well advanced than the cities; in some sections primitive conditions prevail even with respect to water - wells and lakes are the main source of supply, and purity often leaves much to be desired.

The situation in the eleven leading cities is suggested by the following:

(1) Helsinki. Water system since 1876. In 1930, the city's consumption was about 12,250,000 cubic meters, or about 38 gallons per capita daily. Gas consumption - gas is made from coal - in 1930 was about 22,000,000 cubic meters. Electricity production in 1930 was about 66,000,000 kwh; sewers in 1932 totaled 128 kilometers.

(2) Tampere. Water system since 1898. Its capacity presumably sufficient to meet the needs of a city of 78,000. The city presumably had no gas works. Electricity was produced, but some of the city's needs are met by current from Nokia and Imatra.

(3) Turku. The water system dates from 1903. In 1937, consumption came to 2,207,000 cubic meters. Gas works were established in 1861; the consumption in 1937 was 2,255,000 cubic meters. The amount of electricity sold in 1937 was 22,676,225 kwh.

(4) Viipuri. The water system is well established; the consumption in the late thirties was about 6,300 cubic meters daily. The city takes most of its electric power from Imatra; what is produced in the city is only a reserve. Gas works exist, but the capacity has not been ascertained.

(5) Vaasa. The water system dates from 1914; its capacity is presumably geared to the needs of a city of 33,000. There is no gas works. In 1937, production of electricity amounted to 9,900,000 kwh.

(6) Oulu. Water system dates from 1902; its capacity is not revealed by available information. There is no gas. In 1934, the electric plant, dating from 1889, produced 4,410,000 kwh.

(7) Lahti. The city has a water system and electricity, but no gas. Production figures have not been found; presumably the needs of the 27,000 people of the city are met.

(8) Kotka. The city has a water system and electric plant; there is no gas.

(9) Kuopio. The water system dates from 1915, and the electric works from 1896. There is no gas.

(10) Pori. See above, under Kotka.

(11) Hanko. See above, under Kotka.

34. RAILROADS.

a. The railway network. The first railway was built in the sixties. In 1939, the length of the system was about 5,900 kilometers. In that year, all but 245 miles belonged to the State Railways. The geographical pattern of the railway network in 1941 is shown by the map on the page following.

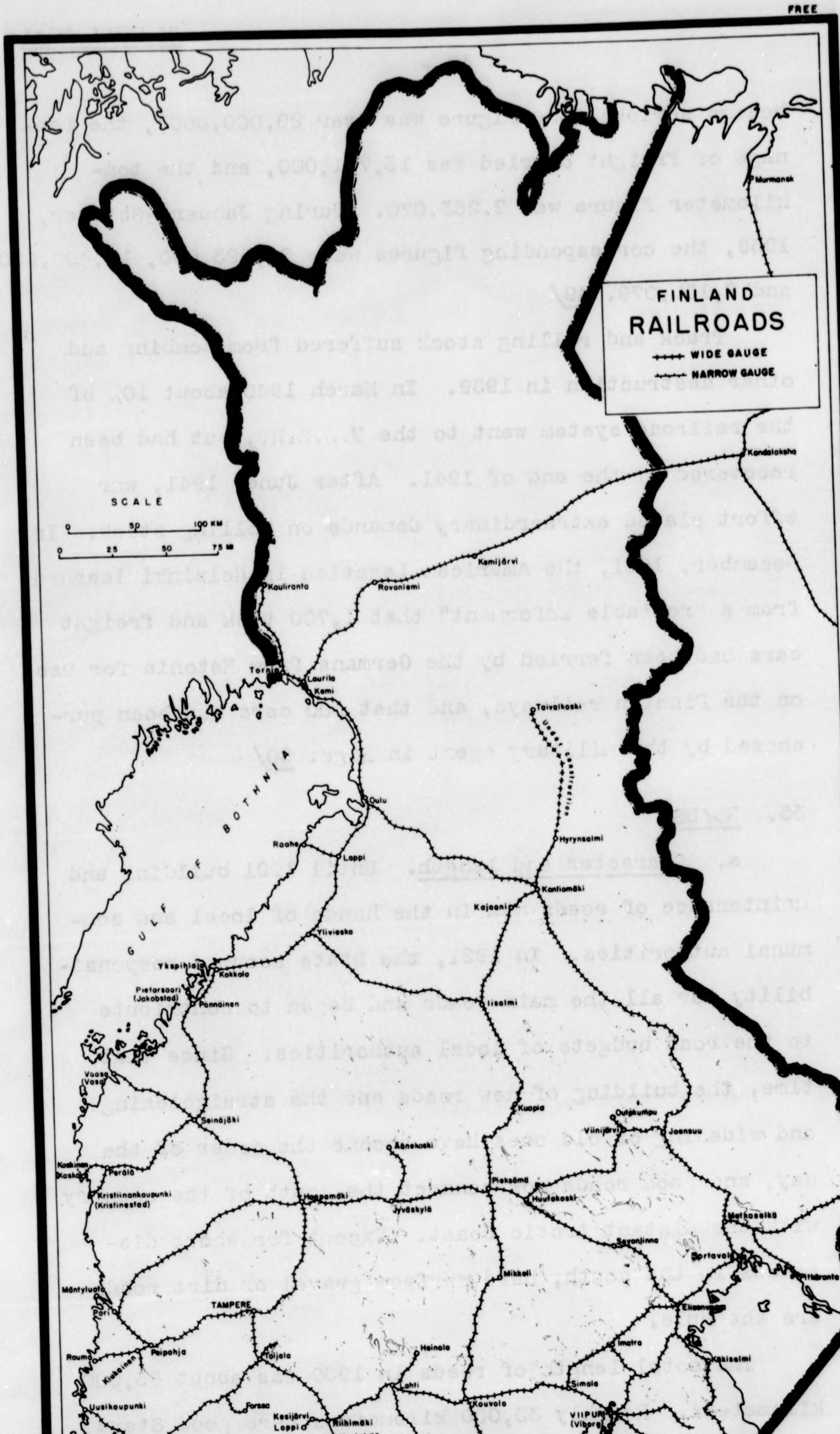
b. The character of the roadbed, etc. The roadbed is for the most part of gravel--not crushed stone--and covered with sand. The ties used are of pine. The rails were originally very light, but have been replaced with heavier rails; their weight varies from 30.0 to 33.48 kilograms, and a part of the mileage in southern Finland consists of 43.57 kilogram rails (presumably on the Helsinki-Turku and Helsinki-Viipuri lines). The length of the rails used is 15-18 meters. The maximum gradient permitted by the regulations is 10:1000 or 1%. 48/

c. The gauge. The gauge is the wide (or Russian) 1.524 meter gauge, and not the narrow one (1.435 meters) in general use in Europe.

d. Rolling stock. In 1939, the rolling stock consisted of 779 locomotives, 1,535 passenger coaches and 24,795 freight cars. For the most part it is not new; between 1925 and 1939, only 120 new locomotives, 377 new passenger cars and 8,011 new freight cars were added. Thus roughly two-thirds of the freight cars, three-fourths of the passenger coaches and five-sixths of the locomotives in use in 1939 had been operated at least since 1925.

e. Capacity of the railroads. An approximate indication of the normal capacity of the railroads is furnished by the traffic in 1938. The total number of railroad fares sold was 24,714,000 (in 1924, before bus competition had

FREE



COMPILED AND DRAWN IN THE GEOGRAPHIC DIVISION, C.O.I.

MAP NO. 427 APRIL 9, 1942

become serious, the figure was over 28,000,000), the tonnage of freight carried was 13,731,000, and the ton-kilometer figure was 2.263.070. During January-October, 1939, the corresponding figures were 24,223,000, 12,495,000, and 2,150,079. 49/

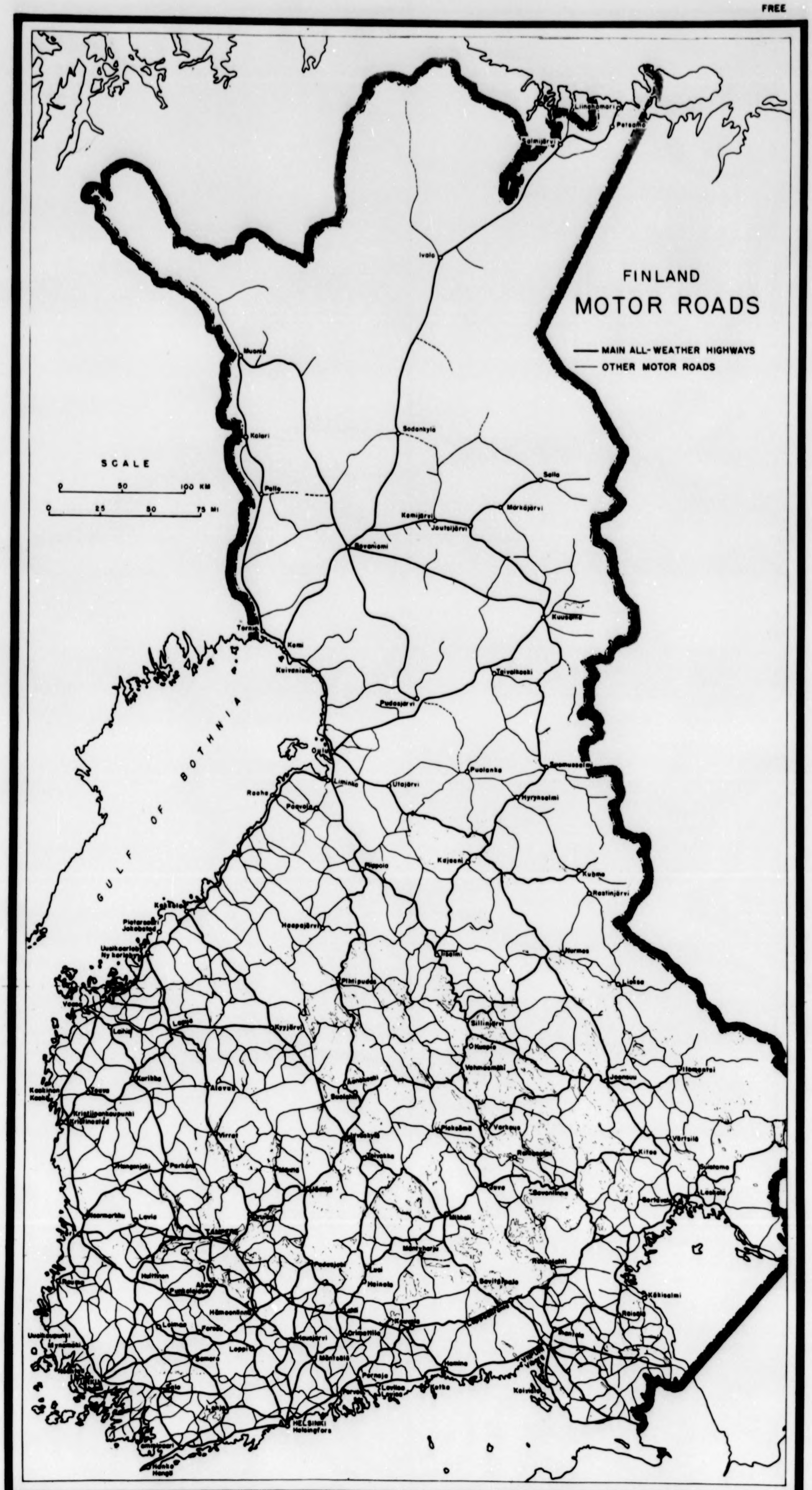
Track and rolling stock suffered from bombing and other destruction in 1939. In March 1940 about 10% of the railroad system went to the U.S.S.R., but had been recovered by the end of 1941. After June, 1941, war effort placed extraordinary demands on rolling stock. In December, 1941, the American Legation in Helsinki learned from a "reliable informant" that 1,700 tank and freight cars had been ferried by the Germans from Estonia for use on the Finnish railways, and that 500 cars had been purchased by the military agent in Riga. 50/

35. ROADS.

a. Character and length. Until 1921 building and maintenance of roads was in the hands of local and communal authorities. In 1921, the State assumed responsibility for all the main roads and began to contribute to the road budgets of local authorities. Since that time, the building of new roads and the straightening and widening of old ones have become the order of the day, and good roads now connect the south of the country with the distant Arctic Coast. Except for short distances in the south, hard surface gravel or dirt roads are the rule.

The total length of roads in 1939 was about 65,000 kilometers. Roughly 33,000 kilometers were good State roads. Secondary roads came to 5,300 kilometers, village roads to about 25,800 kilometers and city, etc., roads to about 550 kilometers. The network of roads is shown by the map on the page following. 51/

FREE



MAP NO. 426 APRIL 8, 1942

COMPILED AND DRAWN IN THE GEOGRAPHIC DIVISION, C.O.I.

The all-important Rovaniemi-Petsamo road is 531 kilometers long. It is hard surface gravel, with soft shoulders, and until 1940, very narrow. In September of that year it was reported that the road was being widened to 25 feet, and in February, 1941, that its capacity at the time was between 500 and 600 tons per day and that during the summer months it is about 1000 tons or more. In February, 1942, word came from Helsinki that the Germans had constructed a direct road between Salla and Liinahamari and that roads from north Norway to Finland had also been built. 52/

b. Programs. The program of road building and maintenance has meant that increasing funds have been expended in the effort to make the roads suitable for motor traffic. In 1937, State expenditures came to 268,500,000 Finnmarks, and in 1939, to 338,700,000 Finnmarks. Between 1937 and 1939, over 2,000 kilometers of main roads were added.

c. Bus lines. In 1939, the total number of motor vehicles--not counting 7,918 motorcycles--was 53,292. Passenger automobiles numbered 30,106, trucks 19,983 and buses 3,203.

Most of the buses were of American make, except that the chassis was often made in Finland (American makes probably account for 80% of all the cars, buses and trucks in the country). They usually accommodate from 20 to 30 passengers.

By 1939, practically all parts of the country had been connected by bus. Most of the lines (their number exceeded 1,000) are private, run by companies, the largest of which owned 20-40 buses. The Post Office operated over 60 lines, including the service from Rovaniemi to the Arctic Ocean (531 kilometers); its network totaled nearly

10,000 miles. The State Railways also maintained bus services of its own.

South of the line drawn from Kokkola on the Gulf of Bothnia to Kuopio and thence to Joensuu, bus lines ordinarily operate in winter as well as summer (even the Rovaniemi-Petsamo route has been kept open during the winter since 1937). Helsinki, Viipuri, Kuopio, Mikkeli, Joensuu, Sortavala, Turku, Tampere, and Vaasa all have up-to-date bus stations.

In the summer when the traffic is at its heaviest, the long distance lines operated as follows (the figures relate to 1936):

Helsinki	145	scheduled	trips	daily
Turku	88	"	"	"
Viipuri	62	"	"	"
Pori	40	"	"	"
Vaasa	38	"	"	"
Jyvaskyla	36	"	"	"
Lahti	35	"	"	"

d. Service facilities. Filling stations, run either by Standard or Shell, are numerous in the cities and frequent enough in the rural sections to meet driving needs in normal times. The total number of pumps in December, 1938, was 4,213. 53/ Shortage of gasoline since 1939 has rendered much if not most of the facilities meaningless.

Service stations and garages are found in all cities and in the larger rural centers as well. 54/

53/ Finland No. 4115, dated February 19, 1942. War Department, M.I.D. (Confidential). This report states that Finland's petroleum consumption in 1938 was:

		Barrels 42's
1.	Gasoline (including Alcohol Benzol)	1,124,989
2.	Refined Oil	533,540
3.	Distillates - Internal	218,771
	Bunkers	28,324
4.	Residual - Internal	2,161
	Bunkers	7,890
5.	Motor Oils and Greases	115,934
6.	Asphalt: 15,415 metric tons	

36. SHIPPING.

Finland has over 70 coastal ports. Most of them are very small and play no part worthy of mention as points of ingress or egress. The important ports and pertinent facts regarding them (as of 1938-1939) are given in the chart on page 46. 55/ A more detailed discussion of ports and port facilities is contained in Appendix IV.

Tides and Ice Conditions. Along the coasts of Finland, tides amount only to a few inches and therefore represent no problem in navigation. However, steady winds occasionally shift masses of water in the Baltic in such a way that the difference between the highest and lowest water mark recorded in the course of a given year may be as much as 1.5-2.0 meters. On the Petsamo coast regular tides do occur.

Freezing of southern and western coastal waters ordinarily begins during November 15-December 15. By the middle of January, the islands that fringe the coast are likely to be bound by ice to the mainland. Freezing may continue till the early part of March. The ice is usually gone by the end of April.

As regards shipping in winter, ice conditions are such that Helsinki, Hanko and Turku are kept open every year. Between 1921 and 1931, Helsinki became icebound, in some of the years, as late as February or March, but was kept open by ice breakers. Hanko was wholly ice free one year. While the Turku channel froze every year, the port was kept open. Kotka on the south coast and Rauma on the west coast were open to traffic only three years, while Viipuri and all the ports on the west coast north of Rauma were frozen solid and closed to traffic

FINLAND'S PORTS AND SHIPPING FACILITIES.

Harbor	Depth of channel to harbor	Maximum depth of water at docks	Length of docks	No. of cranes	Floor space of warehouse	Railway trackage in harbor area	Tonnage figures suggesting port capacity [7]
South Coast							
Viipuri	6.1-7.3 m	8 - 9 m	14,900 meters	10[1]	25,000 sq.m	45 kilom.	1926: 1.46; 1937: 2.08
Kotka	6.0-6.5?"	6.0-6.7"	2,000 "	8[2]	7,500[3] " "	41 "	" 1.23; " 2.09
Helsinki	7.3 "	West: 8.7-9.7" South 6.7-7.9" Sornäis 5.4"	5,200 "	39	117,700[4] " "	60 "	" 0.87; " 2.01
Hanko	9.1 "	Outer 7.2" Inner 8.0-9.0"	1,500 "	9	31,700[5] " "	12 "	" ? " ?
West Coast							
Turku	7.3-7.9 "	4.8-7.0"	1,900[6] (3,600) m	16	29,000 " "	26 "	" 0.59; " 0.69
Rauma	5.5-7.3 "	Outer 7.0" Inner 4.5-5.1"	470 (2,800) "	3	16,000 " "	23 "	" 0.25 " 0.58
Pori	7.3"	5.5-7.3"	665 (1,300) "	5	14,200 " "	17 "	" 0.39 " 0.54
Vaasa	4.0-7.0 "	5.0-6.6"	680 (1,460) "	0	4,200 " "	12 "	" 0.20 " 0.40
Tornio	6.7 "	3.9-4.8"	156 "	0	1,000 " "	2 "	about 60,000 tons yearly
Arctic Coast							
Liinahamari (Petsamo)	Deep	8.6"	220 (?) "	2(?)	?	?	?

Footnotes on following page.

for some weeks every winter (the average length of the sailing season in Vaasa is 270 days a year). 56/

In 1939, the State owned and operated seven ice breakers, the city of Helsinki two and the city of Turku one. The following table indicates average temperatures in the southern, southwestern, and western sections of the country during the months when ice is likely to obstruct shipping.

Average Temperatures, 1938-1939 57/
(Centigrade)

	Helsinki	Aland	Vaasa
November	5.4	1.9	- 0.5
December	1.5	-0.9	- 4.5
January	-5.5	-1.8	- 5.7
February	0.4	1.6	- 0.7
March	-1.3	-0.3	- 2.8
April	3.2	3.2	1.0

Notes to table on preceding page:

1/ Two additional cranes were under construction in 1938.

2/ Plans called for the building of four more by the end of 1939.

3/ Plans called for the addition of 12,000 square meters during 1939.

4/ Plans called for the addition of 1,700 square meters during 1939.

5/ In the harbor itself, only 19,700 square meters; the rest is about 2 miles distant from the harbor.

6/ The first figure indicates the length of that part of the docks along which the water is at least 6 feet deep; the figure in parentheses gives the total length of docks. This applies also to the Rauma, Pori and Vaasa figures in this column.

7/ These figures show tonnage actually cleared during the years mentioned, and therefore indicate port capacity only in a general way.

37. COMMERCIAL AVIATION.

a. Commercial aviation. Commercial aviation centers in the Aero O. Y. Company which began operations on a modest scale in 1924. The dimensions of the Aero Company's business by 1939 are indicated by the following figures:

Commercial Aviation, 1939[58]

Route	Miles flown	Passengers carried	Mail (tons)	Freight & luggage (tons)
Helsinki-Turku-Stockholm	305,129	7,326	74.5	156.2
Helsinki-Tallinn	33,812	3,079	8.9	39.7
Helsinki-Tallinn-Berlin	98,576	1,720	17.5	22.5
Aland-Stockholm	882	42	.012	0.5
Vaasa-Sundsvall-Stockholm	1,210	12	.008	0.14
Within Finland:				
Helsinki-Tampere-Vaasa-Oulu-Kemi	112,696	1,004	.42	10.7
Helsinki-Viipuri-Immola	56,954	785	.24	5.2
Total	609,259	13,968	101.58	234.94

b. Private aviation. While figures are not available, it is safe to say that private flying is altogether unimportant. Few private planes are operated, and only some of the larger business concerns--the state-controlled Enso-Gutzeit Company is an illustration--maintain planes for their own business convenience. 59/

c. Airports. By 1939, the air service had been extended to the Petsamo area on the Arctic, and the following airports had been completed. 60/

(1) Helsinki - at Malmi, 11 kilometers from the city.
(2) Turku - at Artukainen, 5 kilometers from the city.
(3) Viipuri - in Suur-Merijoki.
(4) Tampere - at Harmala.

(5) Vaasa - just outside the city.
(6) Oulu - at Oritkari.
(7) Rovaniemi - an airfield was in operation in the autumn of 1941.
(8) Petsamo - at a place 20 miles south of Parkkina. 61/

The Helsinki air port is large and able to accommodate a considerable number of planes; its capacity is probably roughly equal to that of Bromma in Stockholm. The others are small and designed to meet the needs of domestic aviation.

38. COMMERCE.

a. Principal export markets. The main export markets are shown by the following table. For the sake of completeness, import figures have also been included and the figures for 1935 inserted in order to indicate the trend in the closing thirties.

Finland's Main Export and Import Markets, 1938[69]
(by value)

Country	Proportion of exports		Proportion of imports		Proportion of total foreign trade		Balance, in millions of Finnmarks
	1938	1935	1938	1935	1938	1935	1935
Great Britain and Eire	44.7	47.5	21.6	24.2	33.0	36.7	+1,727.0
Germany	14.8	9.5	20.0	20.4	17.4	14.5	- 346.2
U.S.A.	9.2	9.0	9.0	7.6	9.1	8.3	+ 45.9
Sweden	4.8	4.9	13.0	11.2	8.9	7.8	- 292.6
Belgium	3.1	5.6	5.2	4.2	4.1	5.0	+ 152.7
France	3.3	4.5	2.2	2.6	2.7	3.6	+ 129.3
Holland	4.5	3.1	4.3	3.7	4.4	3.4	+ 38.2
Norway	1.1	1.3	1.9	1.8	1.5	1.5	- 51.2
Denmark	3.2	3.4	4.6	4.2	3.9	3.8	+ 33.6
U.S.S.R.	0.5	1.1	1.3	3.1	0.9	2.0	- 107.5

The situation disclosed by the table prevailed, in general, during the two decades before the present war, except that Germany's share in Finland's foreign trade declined toward the end of the period. (In the early twenties Germany furnished about one-third of Finland's imports and absorbed some 10% of its exports.) Soviet Russia was an altogether negligible factor both as buyer and seller.

b. Importance of foreign trade. Exports and imports play not only an important but a vital part in the economic life of the nation. Self-sufficiency could be achieved only at the cost of a drastic lowering of the standard of living. The main reasons for the significance of foreign trade are suggested by the following:

(1) Finland produces annually large quantities of pulp, paper and various lumber and dairy products which the domestic market cannot absorb. These products normally account for over 90% of the export trade of the nation.

(2) There are many commodities which cannot be produced in Finland at all or which, if they can be manufactured, become prohibitively costly. They must therefore be imported. They are paid for, in the long run, by the credits accumulated by the sale of the wood, dairy, etc., products abroad.

Incidentally, export commodities are relatively few, with paper, pulp, timber and dairy items accounting for some nine-tenths of the list, while the list of imported commodities is long and varied: textiles, metals, machinery, oil, grain, and fruits are the main items. Important exports go to few countries, relatively, while imports are drawn from a larger number of countries: in 1938, Great Britain, Germany, the United States and Sweden absorbed some 74% of Finland's exports, while it took the four countries named and four others to furnish a corresponding portion of its imports. 63/

After 1939, the picture disclosed by the table on page 49 has radically changed. Dependence upon exports to and imports from Germany greatly increased, and during the period January-August, 1941, accounted for well over one-half of Finland's total foreign trade (54.3% of imports and 51.5% of exports), The import percentage, by the way, does not include imports of military materiel, such items not appearing at all in available statistics. Finland is dependent primarily on Germany for needed foodstuffs as well as raw materials. Germany is therefore able to call the tune and impose upon Finland the conditions under which imports and exports are possible. Sweden, the only other potential source of necessary imports, is not in a position to furnish what is most needed, and despite the disappearance, since 1940, of Great Britain and the United States as export markets and sources of imports, Sweden's share of Finland's imports, during the first half of 1941, came only to 16.5%, and of exports, to 8.7%. 64/

39. COMMUNICATIONS.

Since 1931, the postal and telegraph services have been combined in the Board of Posts and Telegraphs, which is a part of the Ministry of Communications. It also administers the long-distance telephone services (the local telephone system is in the hands of some 900 private companies) and in the northern and eastern parts of the country it controls local telephones as well.

a. The Postal System. In 1939, Finland had 3,638 post offices of various grades, and by that time the system of distributing mail had been extended to even remote localities. The mail carriers and other personnel of the same grade numbered 8,846, and 415,986,000 items of mail were handled, some 297,000,000 of the total representing newspapers and periodicals. 65/

b. The Telegraph. By 1939, the telegraph service also included practically the whole country. The number of telegraph offices was 640; of these, 405 belonged to the State Railways and were located at railway stations. Some 322,100 domestic telegrams were sent. The number of telegrams sent abroad came to 338,253, and of those received from abroad, 373,955.

The length of lines was 7,883 kilometers, 5,883 belonging to the State Railway telegraph lines. Cables have connected the country with Sweden since the 1880's. Roughly, one-third of the foreign telegrams were normally exchanged with Great Britain. 66/

c. The Telephone System. The telephone net likewise covers practically the entire country. In 1939, the telephone connections totaled about 170,000 kilometers. The number of telephones was about 186,000; all but about 8,800 belonged to the private companies that control the local telephone services in most parts of the country. The State-owned long-distance telephones carried 30,350,000 calls in 1939; in 1938, the corresponding figure for the private telephone companies was 61,754,000. Practically all the telephone lines in the country are carried by ordinary telephone poles. 67/

d. The Radio. The Finnish General Radio Company, which the State controls through the ownership of more than 90% of its shares, operated 16 radio stations in 1939. 68/

Station	Power (KW.)	Kilocycles	Wave Length(meters)
Helsinki I	10.0	895	335.2
Helsinki II	1.0	1,522	197.1
Helsinki III	0.25	6,120	49.02
Joensuu	1.0	310	967.7
Kuopio	0.7	253	1,185.7
Lahti I	150/220	166	1,807.2
		9,500	31.58
Lahti II	1.0	11,780	25.47
		15,190	19.75
Lahti III	1.0	17,800	16.85
Oulu	10.0	431	696.0
Pietarsaari	0.25	1,500	200.0
Pori	1.0	749	400.5
Sortavala	1.0	610	491.8
Tampere	0.7	1,348	222.6
Turku	0.5	1,420	211.3
Vaasa	10.0	1,420	211.3
Viipuri	10.0	527	569.3

40. FINANCE.

Before 1939, the rate of currency was 39.70 Finnmarks to the dollar. The rate changed as a result of the war. For some two years past, it has stood at 49.35 Finnmarks to the dollar.

The unit of currency is the markka (or mark), divided into 100 penni.

John H. Wuorinen

APPENDIX I

ANNUAL PER CAPITA CONSUMPTION OF CERTAIN FOODS

1930-1934 1/

Country	Bread Grains (kilos)	Potatoes (kilos)	Milk and Cream (liters)	Butter (kilos)	Meats (kilos)	Cheese (kilos)	Sugar (kilos)
Finland	157	177	290	9	31	1	23
Norway	144	142	256	4	33	7	32
Sweden	148*	127*	280*	7*	36	4*	43
England	96	98	89	10	64	10	50
Switzerland	149	98	268	6	47	6	44
U. S. A.	105	107*	177	8	61	8	47
Germany	104	189	104	7	51	7	24

1/ A. Lehtinen, "Eri maiden elintarvikekulutus," (Consumption of foods in various countries") in Sosiaalinen Aikakauskirja (Social Review), 1938, 2, pp. 71-91. The bread grain figures relate to 1930-1935 and the potato figures to 1931-1934. The others cover the years 1930-1934 except in the case of Sweden where the figures indicated by a star relate to the closing years of the twenties; The American starred potato figure relates to 1924-1928.

APPENDIX II **CONFIDENTIAL**

Commodities of General Military Significance[1]
(Production figures of 1938-1939)

	1938		1939	
I. Metals:				
1. Copper conc. (20%)	63,034	tons	59,200	tons
2. Pyrite conc.	103,000	"	117,000	"
3. Pig iron	27,500	"	29,000	"
4. Foundry products	72,300	"	73,100	"
5. Rolled iron, steel	97,000	"	98,100	"
6. Nails	13,000	"	16,400	"
7. Wire	20,000	"	11,700	"
II. Motors:				
1. Internal combustion	3,984		4,300	
2. Electric	5,027		5,153	
III. Chemical, etc.				
1. Sulphuric acid	28,500	tons	27,200	tons
2. Potassium Chlorate	1,300	"	1,600	"
3. Soap	8,500	"	5,700	"
IV. Shoes, rubbers, leather.				
1. Leather				
Sole	2,800	"	2,900	"
Other	8,470,700	sq.ft.	8,411,000	sq.ft.
2. Shoes	2,408,300	pairs	2,337,700	pairs
3. Rubbers, galoshes	812,300	"	835,400	"
4. Rubber footwear	2,038,900	"	1,515,400	"
5. Boots, moccasins	321,700	"	372,200	"
6. Felt footwear	279,200	"	135,100	"
V. Textiles.				
1. Woolen cloth (1937)	99,500	meters	56,300	meters
2. Cotton cloth	758,900	"	586,400	"
3. Rayon cloth	1,231,600	"	1,783,900	"
VI. Building materials.				
1. Cement	500,350	tons	562,600	tons
2. Lumber - not planed	347,800	stds.	362,400	stds.
planed	76,600	"	52,200	"
3. Plywood (veneer)	182,700	tons	148,500	tons
VII. Foods.				
1. Rye flour, meal, etc.	72,900	tons	51,900	tons
2. Wheat flour	77,500	"	47,300	"
3. Oatmeal, etc.	12,400	"	8,500	"
4. Rice	11,900	"	11,300	"
5. Margarine	14,000	"	9,800	"
6. Sugar-raw	15,300	"	8,500	"
refined	44,600	"	43,400	"

VII. Miscellaneous.

	1938	1939
1.Chocolate	1,800 tons	1,800 tons
2.Cigarettes (in 1000's)	4,505,000	3,975,000
3.Pipe tobacco	330 tons	470 tons
4.Beer	404,800 hectl.	373,500 hectl.

APPENDIX III

CONFIDENTIAL

UTILIZATION OF WATER POWER, 1939. 1/

In 1939, about 650,000 HP represented the output of water power plants then in operation. The main plants were:

1.	The Imatra Power Station.	Output:	174,000 HP.
2.	The Rouhiala Co.	"	132,000 HP.
3.	Ahvenkoski	"	31,500 HP.
4.	Voikka	"	21,750 HP.
5.	Myllykoski	"	21,300 HP.
6.	Kuusankoski	"	11,500 HP.
7.	Inkeroinen	"	16,800 HP.
8.	Korkeakoski	"	10,000 HP.
9.	Tampere	"	21,700 HP.
10.	Nokia	"	27,600 HP.
11.	Aetsa	"	11,000 HP.

The following stations were under construction in 1939:

1.	Harjavalta,	90,000 HP.
2.	Vallinkoski,	132,000 HP.
3.	Keltinkoski,	17,000 HP.
4.	Janiskoski,	35,000 HP. (Petsamo Nickel Co.)

APPENDIX IV **CONFIDENTIAL**

PORT FACILITIES

1. Port of Viipuri. Viipuri has two harbors: the City Harbor and the outer harbor of Uuras which is located about 13 kilometers outside the city, in Viipuri Bay.

Viipuri was shelled and bombed in 1939-1940. The city itself was largely destroyed, but docks and warehouses seem not to have been badly damaged. All movable equipment however, was reported in the autumn of 1941 as having been removed.[1]

a. Channel from the sea to the harbors

1) To the outer harbor of Uuras: 6.1-7.3m. deep
2) To the city harbor: 6.1 meters deep/

b. Depth of water at the docks

1) At Uuras: only 3.5 meters.
2) City harbor: (a) South - 8-9 meters (for a distance of 1,000 meters); (b) North - only 3.5 meters (can be reached only through a swing bridge).

c. Length of docks

1) In Uuras: about 10,000 meters.
2) In city harbor: about 4,900 meters.

d. Unloading facilities: 10 cranes of 2.5-5.0 tons capacity; nine are movable. It has not been possible to ascertain how the cranes were distributed between the two harbors. Railroad sidings: 18 kilometers in Uuras; 27 kilometers in the city harbor area.

e. Storage facilities: floor space of warehouses was about 25,000 square meters.

2. Port of Kotka. Kotka has an outer and an inner harbor. The city was repeatedly bombed in 1939-1940 and no doubt suffered from bombings after June, 1941.

a. Channel from the sea to the harbor: Exact figures have not been found, but 6.0-6.5 meters appears to be a safe estimate.

b. Depth of water at the docks:

1) In the outer harbor, for about 700 meters, it is 6.7 meters.

2) In inner harbor, or a distance of 600 meters, it is 6.0-6.5 meters.

c. Length of docks: The total is about 2000 meters; of this, about 700 meters fall to the outer harbor.

d. Unloading facilities: 8 movable cranes; load capacity 3.5 tons. Railroad sidings total about 41 kilometers.

e. Storage facilities: floor space of warehouses is about 7,500 square meters, (probably mainly for timber).

3. Port of Helsinki. Helsinki has four harbors. All are located in the immediate vicinity of the city.

a. Channel from the sea to the harbors: 7.3 meters.

b. Depth of water at the docks:

1) South harbor - 6.7-7.9 meters, for a distance of some 700 meters.

2) West harbor - 8.7-9.7 meters, for a distance of 200 meters; the rest is shallower.

3) Sornais harbor - 5.4 meters, for a distance of about 180 meters.

4) Herttoniemi Oil harbor - has not been ascertained.

c. Length of docks for traffic requiring a water depth of 6 feet: about 5,200 meters, divided as follows:

1) South harbor: about 1,600 meters.

2) West harbor: about 1,500 meters (estimate)

3) Sornais harbor: less than 1,000 meters (estimate)

4) Herttoniemi Oil harbor: about 1,100 meters (estimate)

d. Unloading facilities: 39 cranes in all. Of these, 38 are movable, and fall into two groups: 1.5-3.0 tons, and 2.5-5.0 tons. One is stationary and has a capacity of 25 tons. The railroad sidings in the harbors total 60 kilometers.

The Coal harbor has 7 coal cranes: their total capacity is 90 tons per hour. Information on the facilities of the Herttoniemi oil harbor is not available.

e. Storage facilities: the floor space of warehouses came to about 117,700 square meters.

Note: A drydock is located in West Harbor (its capacity is probably under 2,000 tons) and a floating dock of somewhat over 2,500 tons. A drydock and a floating dock (both presumably small) were maintained in Suomenlinna, located on the islands just outside of the South Harbor. The city of Helsinki maintains two icebreakers.

4. Port of Hanko. Before 1939-1940, Hanko was the main winter port of Finland. It has not been possible to ascertain how the port fared during the war. The Hanko area was leased to the U.S.S.R. in March, 1940. The Russians evacuated it in December, 1941, after nearly six months of fighting.

a. Channel from the sea to the harbor; 9.1 meters (west of the lighthouse).

b. Depth of water at the docks:

1) Outer harbor - 7.2 meters, for a distance of about 150 meters.

2) Inner harbor - 8.0 - 9.0 meters, for a distance of about 500 Meters, and 7.7 meters for a distance of 700 meters.

c. Length of docks: about 1,500 meters in all; of this total, 150 meters fall to the outer harbor.

d. Unloading facilities: 9 cranes. All but one are movable and have a capacity of 3 tons; the stationary crane lifts 40 tons. Railroad sidings total 12 kilometers.

e. Storage facilities: Warehouse floor space totals about 31,700 square meters, of which 19,700 square meters fall to the inner harbor.

5. Port of Turku.

a. Channels from the sea to the port:

1) The Uto channel - 7.3 meters deep.

2) The Aland channel - 7.9 meters deep.

b. Depth of water at the docks: For a distance of 800 meters, it is 7.0 meters, and for 700 meters only 4.8 meters.

c. Length of docks: about 5,500 meters. Only about 1,900 meters are usable by ships with a draft of 6.0 meters.

d. Unloading facilities: The number of cranes was 16; one of them was stationary and had a capacity of 40 tons. The other fifteen ranged from 1.5 to 7.0 tons. Railroad sidings total 26 kilometers.

A turntable stationary crane - lifting capacity 100 tons - is located in the Crichton-Vulcan ship yard at the mouth of Aura River, in the harbor area.

e. Storage facilities: The floor space of warehouses was somewhat over 29,000 square meters.

f. Oil harbor: In 1932 an oil harbor was completed in Turku, but its capacity and facilities have not been ascertained.

Note: The city was repeatedly bombed in 1939-1940; it appears that the harbor area suffered heavy damage.

6. Port of Pori. The city harbor is shallow (depth of water only 2 meters) and therefore all important shipping centers in Mäntyluoto, 21 kilometers distant by rail from the city.

Mäntyluoto harbor:

a. Channel to harbor: 7.3 meters deep.

b. Depth of water at the docks: 7.0-7.3 meters, for a distance of 115 meters; the shallowest part is 5.5 meters.

c. Length of docks: 1,965 meters, but only 365 meters accommodate ships that draw 6 feet.

d. Unloading facilities: 5 cranes; 4 are movable, with a capacity of 3-5 tons. The one stationary crane handles loads up to 25 tons (the city harbor has one 3-ton crane). Railroad sidings total 17 kilometers.

e. Storage facilities: floor space of warehouses totals about 14,200 square meters (the city harbor has 3,600 square meters).

7. Port of Rauma. Rauma has an inner and an outer harbor. The outer harbor is by far the more important.

a. Channels to harbor:

1) The Santakari channel: 5.5 meters deep.

2) The Valkeakari channel: 7.3 meters deep.

b. Depth of water at the docks: in the outer harbor the maximum depth is 7.0 meters for a distance of 200 meters; in the inner harbor it varies from 4.5 to 5.1 meters.

c. Length of docks: totals about 2,800 meters.

d. Unloading facilities: 3 cranes (presumably in the outer harbor). One is stationary and has a capacity of 18 tons. The other two are electric 1-ton cranes. Railroad sidings total 23 kilometers.

e. Storage facilities: warehouse floor space totals about 16,000 square meters. Most of it appears to be for timber storage.

8. Port of Vaasa. Vaasa has a city harbor and an outer harbor at Vaskiluoto, some 5 kilometers from the railroad station.

a. Channel to harbor:

1) To Vaskiluoto - 7.0 meters deep.

2) To city harbor - 4.0 meters deep.

b. Depth of water at the docks: in the city harbor, for the most part 5.0 meters. In Vaskiluoto the figure varies from 6.0 to 6.6 meters, for a distance of about 680 meters.

c. Length of docks: totals 1,460 meters of which 900 meters in Vaskiluoto and the rest in the city harbor.

d. Unloading facilities: there are no cranes as far as available sources indicate. Railroad sidings total 12 kilometers.

e. Storage facilities: warehouse floor space totals about 4,200 square meters (all but 700 square meters being in the city harbor).

9. Port of Tornio .Tornio's port is at Röyttä, some 4 mile south of the city.

a. Channel from the sea: 6.7 feet deep.

b. Depth of water at the docks: 3.9-4.8 feet.

c. Length of docks: 156 meters.

d. Unloading facilities: there are no cranes. Railroad sidings total about 2 kilometers.

e. Storage facilities: warehouse space amounts to about 1,000 square meters. The port is primarily a timber outlet.

10. Port at Liinahanari (Petsamo)

a. Channel to the harbor - appears to be deep enough to accommodate large ships (exact figures not found).

b. Depth of water at the docks - 8.6 feet.

c. Length of docks : The 45-meter dock of pre-war years has been lengthened probably to 220 meters. There are now four loading areas, and a fifth for oil tankers. At Trifona, a 100 foot dock was reported in September, 1940.

d. Unloading facilities: 2 cranes, one of 15, another of 25 tons capacity.2/ The nature of storage facilities has not been ascertained.

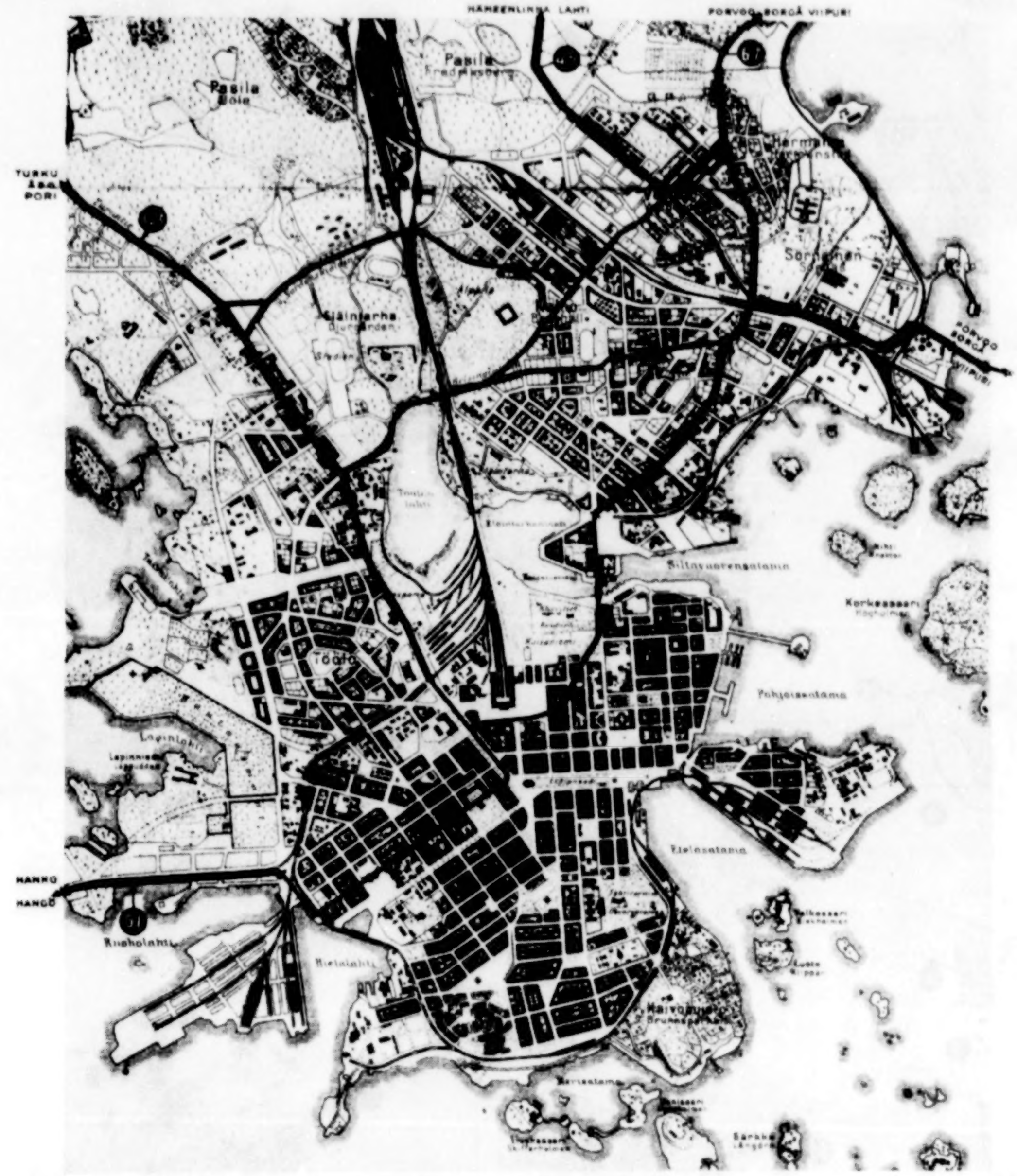
APPENDIX V

CITY OF HELSINKI

ASUTUSKESKUKSIEN ASEMAKAAVOJA

PLANKARTOR FÖR BOSÄTTNINGSCENTRA

HELSINKI – HELSINGFORS

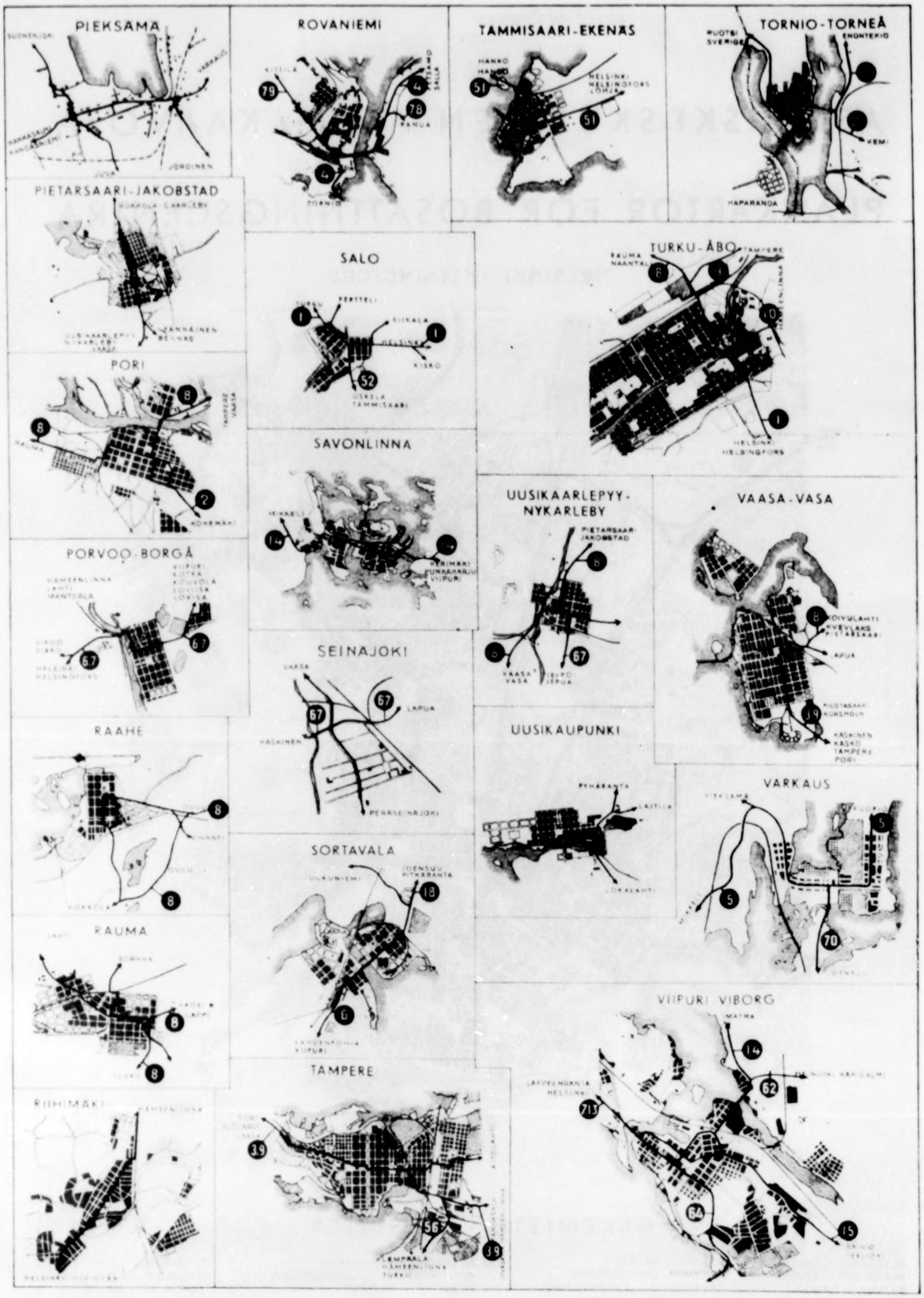


HAKEMISTO. REGISTER.

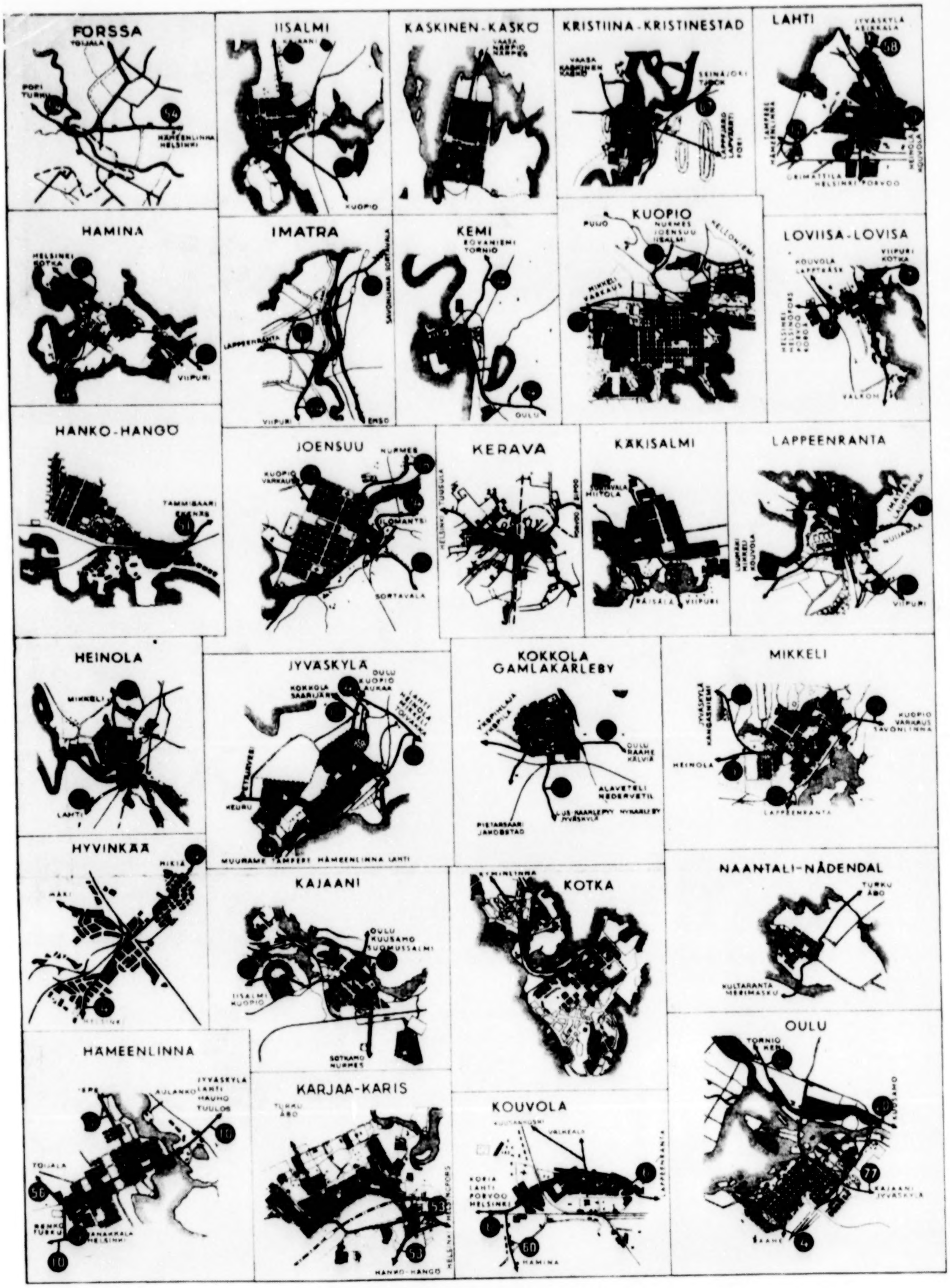
ULEÅBORG – OULU
BRAHESTAD – RAAHE
KAJANA – KAJAANI
BJÖRNEBORG – PORI
RAUMO – RAUMA
NYSTAD – UUSIKAUPUNKI
TAVASTEHUS – HÄMEENLINNA
TAMMERFORS – TAMPERE
FREDRIKSHAMN – HAMINA
VILLMANSTRAND – LAPPEENRANTA
ST MICHEL – MIKKELI
NYSLOTT – SAVONLINNA
SORDAVALA – SORTAVALA
KEKSHOLM – KÄKISALMI
IDENSALMI – IISALMI

APPENDIX VI

CITIES AND VILLAGES



APPENDIX VI (cont)



micro

CONFIDENTIAL

Copy 23. B.

X CONFIDENTIAL 114,184

Strategic Survey

Sections III, IV, V

THE LEVANT STATES

Syria
Lebanon
Latakia
Jebel Druze

097.3
Z1092
No. 731

R+A 731

Prepared by
Near East Section
Division of Special Information
C O I

DEPARTMENT OF STATE
REFERENCE DIVISION
FILE COPY
PLEASE RETURN

2756

CONFIDENTIAL

Section III

POPULATION AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS

15. General.

The term Syria is used with at least three meanings, first as a general term for the formerly Ottoman controlled land between Turkey proper on the north and the Red Sea on the south, the Suez and Mediterranean on the west and Iran and the Persian Gulf on the east; second, synonymously with the title of this survey, "Levant States", to indicate the group of political units placed under French mandate following World War I; third, as the name of one of these states. Strictly speaking, the last is the only proper usage and this limitation is observed in this survey. At the same time, the term "Syrian States" is used synonymously with "Levant States".

a. The territory designated under the first cited meaning of Syria is also known as the "Bible Lands" with Mesopotamia and Palestine recognized as subdivisions. It was under Muslim domination since the seventh century and also a part of the Ottoman Empire from the sixteenth century. The western part was the scene of much Crusader activity and is dotted with relics of Crusader castles. Although the Muslim religion and culture have dominated this territory, the Lebanon mountains and coast have been largely Maronite Christian (see below, paragraph 24 on religion). The presence of this Christian population has been the occasion for one of the most divisive factors affecting life in this area.

During the nineteenth century Ottoman control of this region became weak. For a time the great Mehmet Ali of Egypt challenged the Sultan's sovereignty there. Hence a division, and political weaknesses were prominent for two long generations before the capture of this area by the British and their allies in the closing months of World War I. The peace conference decided upon mandate governments for the states of Syria. The responsibility was assigned to France as the result of inter-allied bargaining, which left Palestine and Suez in British hands. The French long had been interested in this region, partly for cultural as well as commercial and military reasons and during the nineteenth century once landed forces there to "protect" the local population. The basic bond of sympathy was between the Catholics of France and the Maronites of the Lebanon. On the economic side the French were interested in whatever control they could gain of the Mosul oil basin. Britain agreed upon this mandate, feeling assured that the British were glad enough to let them hold territory in which their ambitions would be adequately held in check by British control in the surrounding areas.

b. The French High Commissioners in charge of the Syrian States have had a rather stormy time. For nearly two years, 1925-27, they had to resist and suppress a Druze rebellion in the course of which the French twice shelled Damascus, the capital of Syria, because of the Damascenes' sympathy with their neighbors, the Druzes. In 1925 they were also forced to grant a special government for the Sanjak of Alexandretta because of the large ratio of Turks in the population there. After considerable agitation and controversy initiated in 1936-37, this Sanjak was ceded to Turkey in 1939. (It is now the province of Hatay in the Turkish Republic). This territory in the extreme northwest of the country is also to be noted as of marked strategic value.

The French administration spent large sums in the construction of trunk highways and several other installations as they desired, for the military security of the states. At the same time they promoted educational, health and other welfare and progress facilities rather slowly, partly because they were not interested in developing the country for the sake of the people and partly because of internal disunity. Their administration cannot be rated as highly successful. As a consequence the people have been inadequately prepared for self-government. Of even greater strategic importance is the fact that they have not been conditioned for united action. The populace, full of minorities, has been fertile soil for fifth column activities.

c. With the fall of France, the position of the Syrian States became precarious to the safety of the inhabitants as well as to the security of Britain and later the United Nations. The British in June 1941 invaded Syria. They had under-estimated the Vichy French resistance and possibly over-estimated the assistance of welcoming Arabs. However, by the end of July they were in virtual control of the entire area and by the middle of September the Free French proclaimed the independence of Syria. Similar status was accorded the republic of Lebanon before the end of November.

At present (April 1942) each of the states is virtually under three governments. First, there is the national government; second, the French high commissioner of Free French allegiance, and third, British martial law. Consequently the situation is somewhat confused and may require on-the-spot evaluation and adjustment on the part of any military commander operating there. However, in each of the states, the national government has a sufficiently long experience in and training under mandatory tutelage that its officials should be sought out first in matters of local adjustments. (See below, paragraph 27 on government).

Special attention should be paid to the paragraph on ethnic groups (17) and religion (24) as they give much additional light on the background of the people.

16. Population.

a. The Syrian States contain just over three million settled inhabitants, plus a quarter million Bedu (nomads), in 78,379 square miles of territory. However, they are unevenly distributed. The low density of population in Syria is associated with aridity.

State	Population (1938)	Area Square Miles	Density
Syria	1,771,091	68,649	25.8
Lebanon	862,618	3,552	242.9
Latakia	371,880	2,510	148.2
Jebel Druze	70,706	3,668	19.3

Most of the Bedu wander in Syria.

Although relatively well-watered, the Lebanon is of such rugged terrain that it has been necessary to build and maintain extensive terracing to provide adequate tillage area.

(1) Agriculture is the chief occupation, directly accounting for the livelihood of 62% of the people . The Bedu (8%) support themselves almost entirely by herding.

(2) There are several sizeable cities only one of which, Beirut, is cosmopolitan in character. The population of the larger cities is reported as follows:

Damascus	260,651
Aleppo	271,586
Beirut	134,655
Homs	52,792
Hama	39,960
Tripoli	37,260
Latakia	21,404
Zahlah (Leb.)	20,985

b. There is no published enumeration of the males of arms-bearing age, but in view of a certain broad similarity in social conditions between the Levant States and Turkey, an estimate may be arrived at, based on Turkish age-group percentages (1935), with regard to the population of the Levant States.

Ages	Total Population	Percentage	Males of arms-bearing age
		Syria	
20-45	1,771,091	16%	283,375
15-50	"	22%	389,640
20-35	"	13%	230,242
		Lebanon	
20-45	862,618	16%	138,019
15-50	"	22%	189,776
20-35	"	13%	112,140
		Latakia	
20-45	371,880	16%	59,501
15-50	"	22%	81,814
20-35	"	13%	48,344
		Jebel Druze	
20-45	70,706	16%	11,313
15-50	"	22%	15,555
20-35	"	13%	9,192
		Totals	
20-45	3,076,295	16%	492,208
15-50	"	22%	676,785
20-35	"	13%	399,918

17. Ethnic and Social Groups.

a. The population of Syria is composed of Muslims, Christians, and Jews. The Orthodox or Sunni Muslims, are the dominant element. They are conservative and, in some parts of the interior, strongly anti-foreign in principle, although friendly to individual foreigners with whom they are acquainted.

(1) The Arab element is relatively pure in the Syrian desert, but elsewhere the population is very mixed, with the influx, through the ages, of Semites, Assyrians, Persians, Crusaders, and Turks. In the larger cities and along the coast, must be added Greeks, Egyptians, and Italians, who have intermarried and form an integral part of the population. There is little class-consciousness on racial grounds.

(2) The Druzes are a group found in parts of the Lebanon and in Jebel Druze. They are a strong, thrifty and courageous people.

(3) The Christian sects are numerous, but in general, the sophisticated city people are Greek Orthodox, descendants of the Byzantine urban population. The Maronites are country people, or their descendants. They are dominated by the clergy and form the strongest pro-French group. Their center is the Lebanon district of the Kesrouân.

(4) The Armenians form a very large social group who have emigrated to Syria from Turkey. They are vigorous, able, shrewd, clever and more enterprising than the Syrians. This fact and their own clannishness has made them not easily assimilated. They tend, even in the cities, to maintain their separateness.

b. In the interior, especially in North Syria, a definite trace of feudalism remains in relations between the wealthy landlords and the residents of villages which they own. It is not uncommon for one man to possess twelve to fifteen villages. The land is worked on shares, the tenant paying practically all expenses of cultivation. The seed is furnished by their owner, the shares vary with the fertility of the soil. A land owner enjoys the title of Be

(1) In the Lebanon, aristocratic family titles have tended to disappear among the Christian population, wealth having become more the criterion of social status.

(2) Among the Druzes, class distinctions are meticulously adhered to. The hereditary Emir and Sheikhs must receive every consideration of their ranks.

(3) The coast cities show the impact of European influences, and Beirut is similar to many other Mediterranean towns.

18. Language.

The strongest bond of unity joining the various religious and racially-mixed groups of Syria is their common language, Arabic. This statement applies to all except a few small minority groups; in their case, the responsible leaders speak Arabic. Arabic will be understood everywhere in Syria. Since Lebanon and, to a lesser degree, all of Syria, have been in close touch with France since the Crusades, the common second language of the entire country is French. French is used in all the cities, especially near the seacoast. English has been taught by the American University at Beirut, by mission schools, and, since 1918, by the British in ʻIrāq, Transjordan, and Palestine. Among the educated classes, persons who speak fluent English, French, and Arabic are not uncommon. Less important languages are Italian (in seaports), Kurdish (especially in the extreme northeast), and Turkish (along the northern border).

Those who know no Arabic should have an interpreter. In matters of any importance, it is better not to use a professional interpreter, but rather to secure the services of an educated civilian. One should be wary of "minority" interpreters (Armenians, Greeks, etc.): usually, the most reliable man will be a Muslim graduate of an Armenian school. His prejudices will be those of the majority. If he attempts to fool you, there will ordinarily be some one in the group listening who will know enough English to catch him up and voice a protest.

19. Characteristics of the People.

a. The Syrians are a friendly, likeable people. Until recently they have been limited by tradition and custom; their prejudices have been hidebound; and they have had little chance to study Western culture; while those accepting Western customs have inclined to do so without evaluating them.

b. Their intelligence is as good as that of any people, the Lebanese being outstanding. There is a worship of education, and an educated man is esteemed in direct ratio to his attainments.

c. The Syrians are shrewd in business. In general, they are easy-going, although they can enjoy hardships philosophically when necessary. They are easily excited.

d. Western customs are being adopted rapidly by the educated people and by city dwellers. In this matter, however, the Levant is in a state of transition, and care should be taken not to offend the established traditions of the country.

e. The political capacity of the people is influenced by their religious affiliations. (See Section 24).

f. Except for the Druzes, the Syrians are not a military people. Hard experience under the Turks has made Syrians fear and try to avoid military service. They respect authority, although the lawless element rapidly comes to the fore, once a disturbance starts. Rioting in the streets is a favorite way of registering complaint.

g. Their attitude toward the United States is in general friendly and even enthusiastic. Reasons for this are as follows:

(1) The United States, through the American University of Beirut and other schools, was one of the strongest forces in building up modern ideas of independence and nationalism.

(2) Wilson's fourteen points are the basis of Arab ideas of self-determination.

(3) The United States has been interested in peaceful and mutually beneficial commerce with Arab countries, since almost the beginning of her history. The first trade treaties were concluded over a century ago.

(4) It was the United States which, by sending out the King-Crane Commission, made the only earnest attempt to find out what kind of government the various Arab countries really wanted, and offered recommendations along those lines.

(5) American engineers, under the patronage of Ibn-Saʻūd, by opening up oil, gold, and water resources, are now helping build up Arabia, the home of the Arabs, Islam, and the Holy Cities to a point of prosperity and advancement hitherto unrealized in modern times.

France is not liked in Syria, because she so long withstood the wishes of the people for independence, and later because the resistance of Vichy troops brought needless suffering to the land.

The way in which Great Britain has handled the question of Zioni has injured her prestige, but Syria's attitude is still in abeyance, pending the settlement of that question.

20. Living Conditions.

a. Standard of living. The standard of living in the country is low.

(1) Food is not abundant. Bread is the staple diet, made palatable with a handful of salty olives. It may be varied with a potage of lentils savoured with onions. In some districts, balls of dried curds preserved in olive oil, or cakes of goats' cheese go with the bread. Rice and potatoes are used. Mutton is an occasional variation. It is preserved as cubes of lean meat, salted and smothered in tallow for use in the winter months. In the plains and in the irrigated regions, vegetables and fruits are abundant in season. Hens' eggs for barter constitute the pin money of the country wife. In the Lebanon, cleanliness is the rule.

(2) The standard of clothing is low. Clothing is usually clean but of poor quality. Children are often barefoot.

(3) In the great cities, life may be luxurious. Here food markets are attractive. Sweet-sellers display attractive wares. In Beirut, Tripoli, Damascus, and the Aleppo, western standards of living are found among the well-to-do. Houses have running water and proper sanitation, but living conditions vary greatly.

In the city, too, for ragged porters and labouring men there is hardship. Not-infrequent beggars show the other side of the picture.

(4) Increase in prices of foodstuff has followed the entrance of the British Army. Some shortage of wheat, said to be due in part to poor harvest and in part to hoarding, has required extensive assistance of the poor on the part of the authorities.

b. Moral conditions are as good as elsewhere in the world, -- and little better. In the cities, prostitution has been "regulated", -- in part -- by the government. Among Muslims sex morality, according to our standards, is low. Syrians are loathe to place their daughters in domestic service because, they claim, they cannot trust them to Syrian homes. In the Christian villages of the mountains, morality is high. Among the Druze villagers especially, monogamy and chastity are rigidly enforced by public opinion.

In some sparsely settled regions of the B'kka and Damascus plain it is not wise for the lone traveller to risk being robbed by indigent ruffians.

(See also Paragraph 31, on economic conditions.)

21. Labor Conditions.

a. The industrial capacity of the Syrian worker varies with the individual. The best is second to none: the worst extends the imagination. Many have a flair for mechanics, and in a town of any size may be found some one with skill to repair an automobile and set it on its way. Armenian workers have shown themselves adept in the adoption of new methods. Most of the work in reinforced concrete has fallen into their hands. They are clever in iron work and in casting brass. Carpentry and joinery can be well done. Stone masonry is well understood throughout the Lebanon. In work that requires patienc and persistence, the Syrian excels.

(1) The laborer's day begins at sunrise, before breakfast. At about 10 a.m. an hour is taken off for breakfast-lunch. The working day ends at sunset. Not much more work is accomplished in the heat of the long summer day than in the shorter hours of the winter day.

Wages. The laboring man commands a wage of approximately forty cents a day. He is often paid according to his capacity for work -- not according to his age. Skilled workers earn between 60 ¢ and $1.60 daily. Only highly skilled mechanics and foremen make as much as $1.25 to $2.00.

(2) For the country laborer, work is seasonal, and, unless there is building in the neighbourhood, -- whether of houses, terraces or roads, -- work and wages are scanty in the winter. At present the cost of living is rising, and, as always, the rise in wages lags.

b. Among factory workers wages are highest in the trades of carpentry and cabinet-making; next, confectionary and sweets, printing, casting and blacksmithy. Lowest paid are oil-pressing and silk-spinning. The usual wage system is by daily rates paid weekly.

(1) Modern factory conditions are much improved over the older ones, but still cleanliness is lacking. Machinery is almost entirely unguarded. Latrines are provided in larger factories, but no washing places, dining rooms, cloak rooms or lockers. Welfare institutions are practically non-existant.

(2) The working day varies according to the industry, generally 9 to 15 hours, average 12 hours including a one-hour break. Sunday is usually free, sometimes also Saturday for the Jews and Friday for the Muslims. Many pious persons refuse to work on the special fast and feast days of their respective faiths. (See also paragraph 24 on religion).

(3) There are no special quarters for factory workers in Syrian towns. Workers live wherever there is cheap and hence inferior housing. Local workers generally own their own houses; workers from other districts are usually tenants. Working-class housing is mostly poor. Until recently, there has been very little control of house-building. There has been over-crowding, dampness, darkness, dirt, and lack of air. The sewage system rarely is satisfactory, and the water supply often insufficient. Privies sometimes are used by three to six families.

c. Child labor under the age of thirteen is prohibited in the Syrian Republic; the labor of youths between 13 and 16, and of women, is subject to regulations. For these groups, labor is prohibited in heavy industries, underground, or in hazardous occupations. Apprenticeship is permitted in these industries if authorized by the director of hygiene and public health. Women may not be employed at manual labor for more than 8 hours, nor at night. Employment before and after childbirth is regulated. Male and female inspectors are appointed by the Director of Hygiene and Public Health. Penalties are given for infringement of rules. The employer may be liable to a fine of from five to fifty Syrian pounds.

d. In 1937, in addition to 65,800 workers reported in sericulture, 203 industrial establishments employed 203,927 laborers. Their distribution was as follows:

	Men	Women	Children	Total
New Industries	24,007	6,379	2,763	33,149
Handicrafts, etc.	90,065	58,413	22,300	170,778
				203,927

In these industries the average wage per day was reported, in French francs, as follows: man -- 11.95, women -- 4.99, child -- 3.40.

Even in 1937 the number of unemployed was over 100,000. The dislocations of war have reduced opportunities to work. One may expect to find available almost everywhere a considerable reservoir of labor, especially if good wages be offered. In addition to unskilled workers there is a generous ratio of such craftsmen as carpenters, stone masons, and blacksmiths in almost every community. For emergency tasks, it should be possible to recruit as much as ten to twenty per cent of the population of a locality in short order.

22. Public Health, etc.

This paragraph is to be submitted by the S.G.O. It has been prepared by Harry Dorman, M.D., professor-emeritus on the Medical Faculty of the American University of Beirut, and at present (April, 1942) Special Consultant to the Near East Section, Division of Special Information, C.O.I., at the request of Major Whayne of the S.G.O.

23. Education.

a. Under the Ottoman Empire only a small portion of the populace received schooling, and most of that was in old-style mosque schools specializing in the rote commitment of religious literature. Under the French mandate, highways and other installations essential to military operations have taken so much precedence over such services as education that the latter has been seriously neglected. Less than one-third of all pupils are in public schools.

b. Literacy rates remain low. Only about 20% of adult females and 40% of adult males can read and write. Less than half the children of school age are in any school. In Lebanon, which is more advanced than the other states in this matter, most boys get some schooling but only about three girls in ten.

(1) In the absence of an adequate public schools system, many children have no chance to attend school, even in the large cities, where the different sects attempt to meet the needs of their parishes by conducting parochial schools. While additional facilities are needed everywhere, the situation is much worse in the remoter villages.

(2) Although the French Administration has failed to provide an adequate number of schools and teachers, it has established regulations tending to produce some uniformity. French is studied by all pupils the last two years in primary school. The most effective control has been the introduction of government examinations based on the French baccalaureate system. Success in the examinations being a prerequisite to employment in most government offices as well as admission to French universities, there have been enough students in every secondary school interested in preparation for this qualification that all secondary schools have been forced to conform to the pattern.

c. The Lebanon is more favored than the other Syrian States in the number of schools, particularly local parochial and foreign institutions. Secondary and higher education is in private hands. There are four normal schools, a School of Arts and Trades, and two universities, located at Beirut. These are the American University of Beirut, with instruction in French, English, and Arabic; and the University of St. Joseph, a Jesuit school which offers courses in French.

d. In addition to the government schools in Syria, there are private normal and technical schools. There is an American institution, Aleppo College, which offers instruction in English and Arabic in addition to the Syrian University in Damascus.

Government primary schools are grouped especially in Muslim districts of Northern Syria, Southern Syria and Beqa', where there are fewer private schools. These schools are crowded to capacity, although the attendance in rural districts varies with the season of agricultural activity. Some experimentation has been made in the education of the Bedu. Eleven summer schools have been started in centers where the tribes gather. These have met with varying success. Three have become permanent.

e. The French and Italian schools have been actively engaged in the propaganda of their respective brands of political and social points of view. American and English teachers and administrators have been conscientiously neutral in their handling of material affecting national loyalties and ideals, yet pupils in schools tend to favor the ideologies of their teachers, only a minor fraction reacting negatively or in opposition to the supposed stands of foreigners.

24. Religion.

One of the chief problems confronting any administrator in the Syrian States is the complex of religions. This is not due to any unusual depth of religious feeling. Instead, it is the direct result of the connection between religion and politics which persists in Western Asia. Because of the great importance of this fact in any questions of administration or local morale and loyalty, it will be treated at some length.

a. The peoples of Syria are used to living under a system in which the head of each religious group is also, ipso facto, the magistrate responsible both for the internal civil administration of the group, and for the good conduct of individual members with respect to the central government. This complicated set of relationships, which became traditionally organic in the governing machinery of the Ottoman Empire, is usually referred to by the term "millet system" (millet being a minority religious group so organized). The ruling members of a millet derive personal prosperity as well as honor from the loyalty of individuals to the group. They have developed means of compelling and ensuring such loyalty and in this they ordinarily have been supported by the authority of the central government.

(1) The Sunnite (orthodox) Muslims were, properly speaking, themselves not a millet but the ruling class. Their government, however, was also a theocracy, a combination of religious and political control, in which religious affiliation was one basis for citizenship. Thus it happened that all Near Eastern peoples were peculiarl unequipped to deal with the western concept of state, in which citizenship is based on national rather than religious loyalties. Western powers, eager to exploit the Levant, soon realized what profit they might gain by supporting the tradition of millet-loyalty rather than nationalism. In Syria, France has pursued that course. Cities are still organized along millet-lines: deference is still paid the head of each religious community. Conquering generals favo

him with visits and he, in turn, favors the generals by assisting materially in the administration of the community. All of this is quite apart from state and municipal organization. It is a principal obstacle to the achievement of national unity in Syria. On the other hand the fault is not entirely France's for the majority of Syrians are peasants and it is they -- the least sophisticated -- who are most attached to the millet system. This "culture lag" is an anachronism which is harmful to the modern nation-state. It is self-evident that this "lag", with accompanying disunity, can easily be exploited by unscrupulous politicians for their own purposes.

(2) In addition to this divisive factor by which religion hinders the Syrian state, there is a further factor to consider: multiplicity. Syria is a "theological museum"; it can furnish a lively specimen of almost every living religion of the Levant and the Occident. Of the main religions, only the post-Islamic cults will be unfamiliar to the average Occidental. The three most important of these cults are "secret religions" which have developed from the Shiʻi schism of the Muslim religion. Most modern observers agree in including the Shiʻi as Muslims and in giving the post-Islamic cults separate status. They are the Nuseirîyeh or Alouites (228,000), the Ismaʻiliyeh or Assassins (15,000) and the El-Hakim Hamzeh or Druzes (100,000). Members of these secret religions claim or disclaim Muslim status according to the convenience of the moment and situation.

b. The world of Islam is supported by five pillars of practical religion: (1) Witness to the Creed -- "There is no god (allah) but God (Allah) and Muhammad is his Prophet".

(2) Prayer. A faithful Muslim prays five times per day, preferably but not necessarily in a mosque. This seems to interfere with work, but the boss of a labor crew had best be patient about it. Friday is the weekly day of rest, prayer, and the preaching service at the mosque.

(3) Fasting. During the month of Ramadan no food, drink, tobacco smoke or anything similar must pass the lips of the faithful between sunrise and sunset. Physical efficiency, and hence ability to work, is seriously affected by this practice, which is observed for the full period by an ever decreasing number. The first three days following the fast are Ramadam Bayram, the chief festival of the Muslim year. Ramadan is a month according to the lunar calendar, and hence is a "movable fast". In 1942 it begins about September 12, and in 1943 about September 1.

(4) Almsgiving. This has included casual gifts to beggars and major philanthropies, such as building a mosque, endowing a fountain (village equivalent of a water works) or building a section of road toward Mecca.

(5) The Pilgrimage (Hajj). Every pious Muslim hopes to make at least one pilgrimage to Mecca, the holy city of Islam. Great merit is manifest and many blessings are secured by this act, which in days of primitive transportation involved great self-discipline.

The chief taboos are on the eating of pork and drinking of alcoholic beverages. The members of the Metawileh sect resemble the Jews in their insistence on eating only ceremonially slaughtered flesh. They also do not share eating dishes in common with others. Avoidance of seeing the faces of the women of conservative families should also be observed. This involves door-knocking or otherwise giving adequate notice of approach to homes and family groups.

c. Christian Sects in the French Levant.

Before the Muslim invasion of the seventh century, the religion of the country was Christian. In the cities, services were conducted in Greek with loyalty to the bishop in Antioch. In the country, the churches were the so-called "Syrian", with their patriarch in Homs, and liturgy in Syriac or Aramaic. The Armenian Orthodox or Gregorian Church was, at that time in what is now Turkey. In their exodus to Syria the Armenians have retained their separate church. The Nestorians, now known as Chaldeans were in

Iraq with their patriarch in Mosul. Now they are transported to the Gezireh region of Syria and their patriarch is in exile.

The Greek Orthodox still remains as the direct descendant of the old Byzantine Church. It still represents the cultured, older, urban population. Their "Patriarch of Antioch" no longer lives in Antioch, residing more commonly in Damascus.

(1) After the Muslim conquest, the break-up of the Eastern Empire, among other conditions, favored prosletyzing by missionaries from the western church of Rome. The Roman Catholics themselves in the East are known as Latins. A heretical sect that had broken off from the Greek Orthodox church, in 1182 A.D. submitted to the authority of Rome and became the Maronites, the National Church of the Lebanon. They number about 300,000, forming about three-quarter of the entire population of the Lebanon. They are mainly concentrated in the northern half, north of the Dog River (near Beirut). One thousand more are found in Beirut and other cities.

(2) There has been constant rivalry for political control of the Lebanon between the Maronite and the Druze leaders. In 1860 the French army of Napolean III intervened to protect the Maronites at the time of massacres. Ever since, the Maronites have been the stronghold of French influence, and the core of French propaganda in Syria. From other of the early Christian denominations, smaller groups have from time to time joined the Roman Catholic church, retaining certain peculiarities of ritual or garb of clergy. Thus have been formed the Greek Catholic church (1724 A.D.), the Gregorian Catholic church, and, comparatively recently, the Syrian Catholic church.

(3) The Protestant churches and schools scattered through the country are the result of mission work of the last 120 years. Under the old Turkish millet system of government, the early Protestant missionaries found it necessary to establish Protestant churches to maintain the civil rights of those who wished to separate from the degraded, superstitious rites of old Oriental churches.

2756

(4) Jewish communities in the Syrian cities are composed of old families who speak Arabic, and are universally peaceful and law abiding.

d. List of Feasts when the Greeks and Maronites Forbid Work

Greek and Maronite

January 1	Circumcision of Christ
January 6	Baptism of Christ
February 2	The Purification of Christ
March 9	The Forty Martyrs
March 25	The Annunciation
June 29	Saint Peter and Saint Paul
July 20	The Prophet Elijah
August 6	The Transfiguration
August 15	Repose or Assumption of the Virgin
September 8	Birth of the Virgin
September 14	Finding of the Cross
November 21	Purification of the Virgin
December 25	Christmas
December 26	Commemoration of the Virgin

Greek

April 23	Saint George
August 29	Decapitation of John the Baptist
October 26	Demetrius the Martyr
November 8	The Archangel Michael
December 6	Saint Nicholas
December 9	The Conception of Hannah

Maronite

February 9	Mar Marûn
March 2	Yuhanna Marûn
March 19	Saint Joseph
June 24	The Birth of John the Baptist
July 31	The Three Hundred and Fifty Monks of Mar Marûn
August 1	The Maccabees
November 1	All Saints
December 8	The Conception of Hannah

Works is suspended also during the great movable feasts.

e. Summary of sects in Syrian States

Islamic: Sunnites, Shiites (Mutawilah)

Christian: Catholics: Maronites, Greeks, Armenians, Syrians,
Chaldeans, Latins
Non-Catholics: Greek Orthodox, Gregorians (Armenians),
Old Syrians (Jacobites), Nestorians
(Chaldeans), Protestants.
Jewish
Adherent to Post-Islamic Cults: Druzes, Nusayriyyah, Ismailiyyah,
Bahaists.

25. Public Order and Police.

The populace is, generally, orderly and "law-abiding". The strongest disciplinary force is the hold of family and group (millet) loyalty and tradition. This is notably true within village and tribal communities which are ethnically homogeneous and bound by primary (face-to-face) relationships. In the cities, with their slums full of economically unadjusted persons, and with the weakening of traditional and group ties, there is more crime than in rural regions.

There are efficient police forces in the cities, reinforced by corps of night watchmen. Villages and small towns are patrolled at night by natoor-s (watchmen). Naturally there is variation in the efficiency of these men. Over-all policing is the responsibilit of the gendarmerie, organized along French lines but composed of well-trained nationals whose morale is reported to be high. The gendarmerie at the close of 1938 was distributed as follows:

	Officers	Ranks	Totals
Syria	58	2,607	2,665
Lebanon	44	1,204	1,248
Latakia	9	281	290
Jebel Druze	1	77	78
Total	112	4,169	4,281

The French have made a practice of supporting their control by keeping 10,000 or more troops in these countries. While they have not been engaged in large-scale operations since 1927, when the Druze Rebellion was suppressed, they have been available for use in case of troubles in which members of the gendarmerie -- with their Arab affiliations and local sympathies -- could not be relied upon. This was necessary with the kind of administration provided by the pre-Free French overlords; their successors under de Gaulle and Catroux are as yet (April, 1942) untried. Should United States forces have occasion to operate in the Syrian States, they should first attempt dealings with and reliance upon the local rather than the foreign government officers and forces, if good will and behind-the-lines security is desired. (Allies will be forced to cooperate, but the assistance of the local populace must be courted.)

26. Press, Propaganda, and Censorship.

a. (1) The most influential papers in Beirut at present are al-Nahār, Ṣawt al-Aḥrār, and Bayrūt. The first, al-Nahār, is very widely read both in Beirut and Damascus. It is edited by Jibrān al-Tuwayni, a Christian, who was ex-Minister of Education in the Lebanese government.

Second in importance is Ṣawt al-Aḥrār. Its editor, Khalīl Kusayyib, also is a Christian and an ex-Minister.

Bayrūt is a Muslim paper edited by Muḥī al-Dīn al-Nusūli and his brother Anīs, both graduates of the American University of Beirut. Muhī al-Dīn was head of the Boy Scouts of Beirut and was a highly respected citizen. He is a gifted speaker and is strongly anti-foreign. He tended to make his Boy Scouts a national militaristic organization. Anīs, his brother, spent some time in Iraq as a history instructor in the government school, but was eventually dismissed for comparing ʻAli unfavorably with Muʻāwiyah.

In Damascus, al-Ayyām is the most influential newspaper. It is edited by a Christian who is liked by all, including Muslims. Alif Bāʻ and other papers are all secondary.

There are a few French newspapers but these have very little effect upon the Arab, if only for the reason that they are French. The Arab papers provide better news coverage.

(2) The press in the Syrian States had great influence upon the populace and for this reason the French High Commissioner kept very close control of all periodicals. Under the French High Commissione some local periodicals and newspapers have been suspended or prohibited for a variety of reasons: spreading anti-mandate propaganda, arousing the Arabs in regards to the Zionist question, or "disturbin the peace and public order".

Since the allied occupation of Syria and the Free French recognition of the independent states of Syria and Lebanon, a very strict censorship has been imposed under Free French supervision. Newspapers of today in Syria and Lebanon print mainly cables and press releases about the general war. Local news is practically nil. Such a policy reduces to a minimum the influence that the newspaper might have upon its Arabic-reading public. The newspaper no longer tells him what he is primarily interested in -- that is, where his place is in the conflict, or what he can expect out of it.

b. The radio reaches scores of thousands who cannot read. At the end of 1938, there were 11,204 receiving sets registered, representing a 2,000 increase over the preceding year. They are found quite generally in public places. A multitude of broadcasts in Arabic, emanating from both Nazi and United Nations sources, can be heard in Syria and Lebanon. A new broadcasting station was opened at Damascus on February 12, 1942, by General Catroux, broadcasting in Arabic. The French have used their broadcasting stations to jam unwelcome foreign broadcast reception. The radio can serve as one of the strongest propaganda mediums. (For a listing of radio stations in the Syrian States, see Appendix 39).

c. The propaganda of the Italians and Germans has exhibited a careful planning which is noticeably lacking in that of the United Nations.

(1) Italian propaganda in Syria was active for several years before the war began. Magnificent schools for boys and girls were established in Beirut and a large modern hospital in Tripoli. The palatial Italian Club in Beirut was available free of charge for receptions and large functions. Cheap trips to Italy were provided for young people and school children. These trips were as low as $20.00 provided a visit to Rome was included (on their return some of the children complained they were forced to wear black shirts in Italy).

(2) The German propaganda machine for the Middle East is well-organized, employing many natives to act as their agents. It is

2756

under the direction of Herr Chapearouge, the Oriental secretary at Istanbul. There are various sections, each pertaining to a single Arab country. The responsible head of each section supervises the activities of pro-Axis refugees who maintain contact with their nationals. The Lebanese group is headed by Shaykh Adil Arslan, a Druze leader, who acts as an agent to disburse money and leaflets for the German cause.

(3) The German and Italian efforts are further supplemented by the activities of two Arabs, Haj Amin al-Huseini, the Mufti of Jerusalem, and Rashid Ali, the former pro-Nazi Iraqi Prime Minister. In the pay of the Fascists, these two have acted as inside agents to win the Arabs to the side of their employers.

(4) The United Nations have fallen short of the efficiency of the Fascist propaganda machine. It is very necessary that a positive policy, which keep in mind the various "sore spots" in the Syrian and Lebanese outlook, be established if the Arabs are to be won over to our side.

27. Government.

a. The government of the mandated States of the French Levant has been by a French High Commissioner assisted by a force of nearly 400 French officials under him. There has been a Central Government in Beirut for the whole mandated area. In the governments of the individual states of Lebanon, Syria, and Jebel ed Druze, the nationals have been permitted a larger share, especially in the state of Syria; but in these states the more important positions are paralleled by a French "advisor" whose decision would be final. In Latakia the French governor has been autocratic in his actions, and it is of interest to note that this is the state in which there has been least confusion. In Syria, on the contrary, the severe repression of political activities has left much bitterness against the former French government.

(1) Relations with the Free French as compared with their predecessors have been enhanced by the proclamations on the part of Genera Georges Catroux of the terminations of French Mandate and independence of the States of Syria (27 September 1941) and Lebanon (26 November 1941).

(2) In the meantime, there are three sets of authority: the national governments and municipal administrations, the Haut Commissariat -- now Free French, and British martial law. The situation has been complicated further by the retention of some functionaries under the High Commissioner who the Syrians allege are loyal to Vichy.

(3) Whenever the French control is withdrawn, as promised, it is reasonable to expect that much of the present set-up of State governments will continue, and the local organizations of municipalitie and towns will remain the same.

(4) It has been announced (January 1942) that the governmental council of Jebel ed Druze has decided that the Jebel ed Druze will be affiliated with the Syrian Republic in such a way as to become independent under Syrian protection. Syria will not concern itself with the internal affairs of the Jebel ed Druze unless it is asked to do so.

(5) Government of the Four Levant States of the French Mandate

The Government consists of central and provincial divisions as follows:

	No. of French Officials in 1939
The Haut Commissariat	79
Departments of Advisors and Departments of Mandate Control	198
The Government of Lebanon	46
The Government of Syria	39
The Government of Latakia	10
The Government of Jebel Druze	5
Local Governments of Municipalities and Towns	
Government of the Municipality of Beirut	
	377

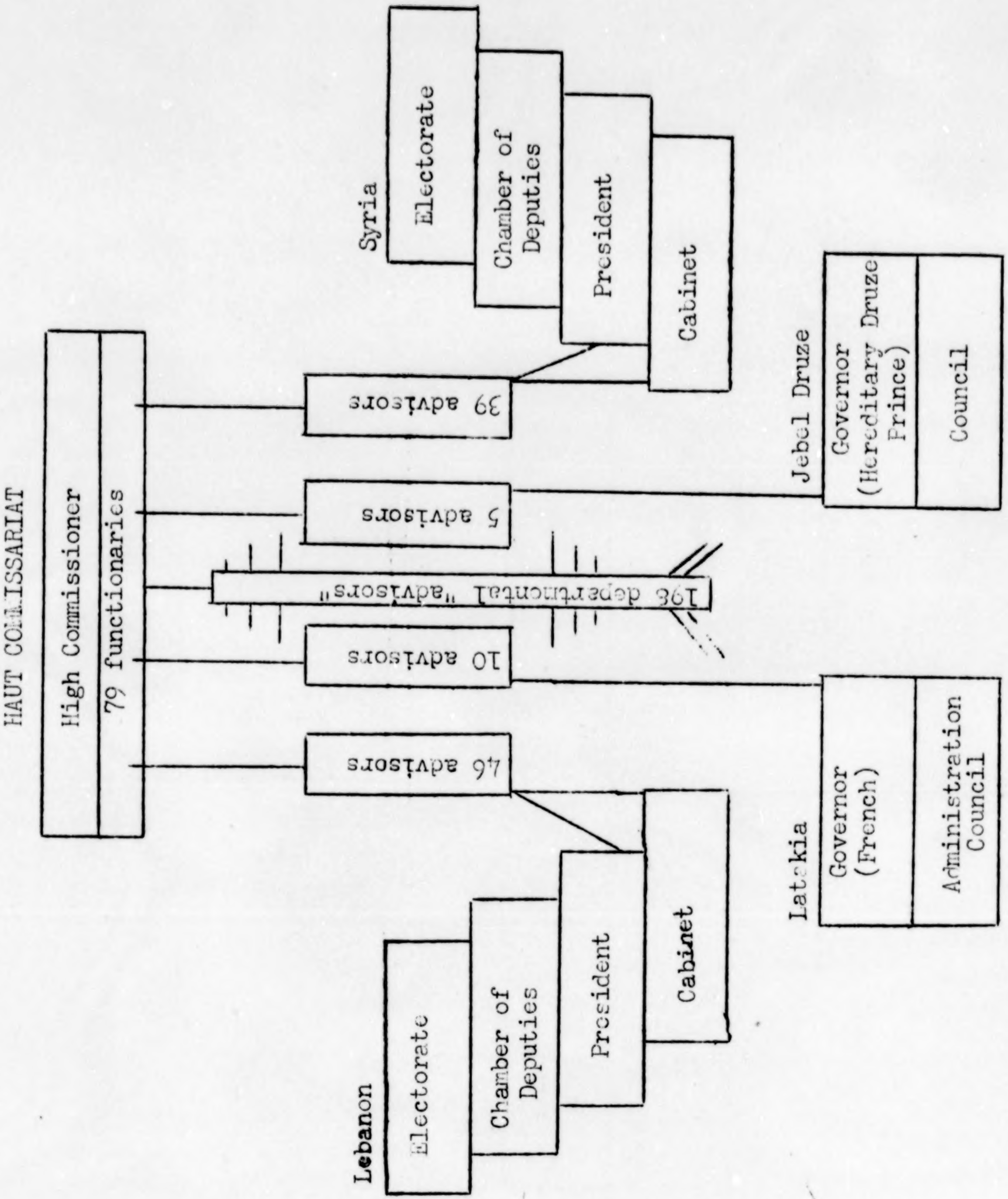
The Haut Commissariat includes seventy-nine officials of political and administrative duties paid by the French budget and "by the aid of the account of the management of receipts and expenditure that are of common concern to the civil expenses of the mandate" (d'intérêt commun au dépenses civiles du mandat").

Advisory Departments and Departments of Mandate Control. (198 French Officials).

- Sûreté Générale (Public Safety and Morals. Bureau of Information) (36 French Officials)
- Bureau of Education
- Public Health and Welfare (Médecin Général Directeur)
- Aid to Refugee Populations
  - Armenians at Beirut, Anjar, Tyre.
  - Assyrians from Iraq on the Khabour River in the Jezireh.
- Department of Antiquities
- Administration of the Wakfs (Religious and Charitable Foundations)
- Department of Properties (Forciers) (Inspector Général)
  - Registry of Deeds. Laison with Public Works in the States.
  - Geological Section. Mines.
- Projects of General Interest (Irrigations)
- Customs (Inspector Général, 48 French Officials)
- Posts and Telegraphs (Inspector Général)
- Control of Concessionary Societies
- Railroads
- Quarantine and Police Sanitation
- Patent Office

The organization of the Mandate Administration, and of the governments of the four states are displayed in the charts on the next five pages.

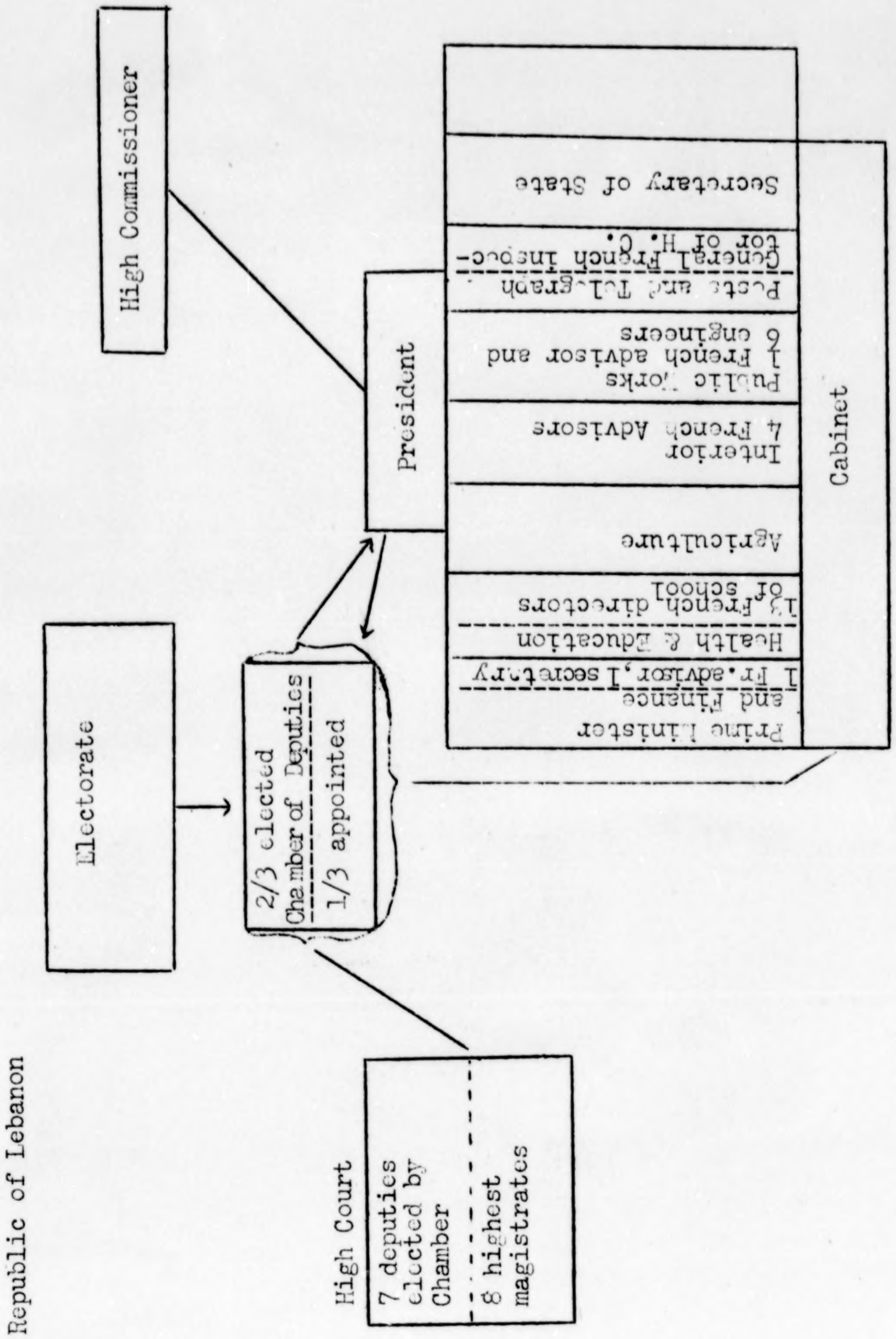
The Mandate Administration



2756

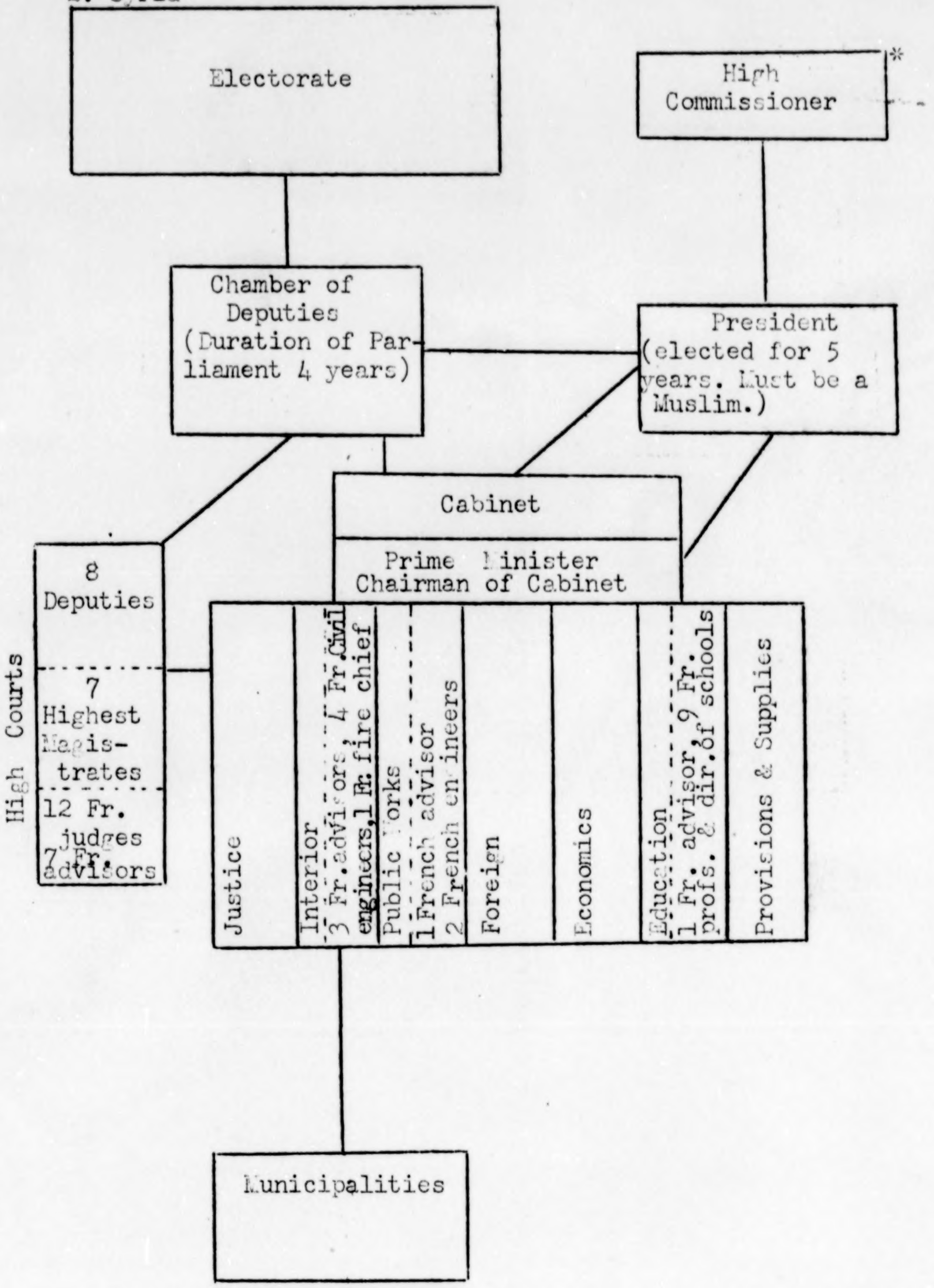
Administration of States

1. Lebanon



The President is elected by the Chamber, one-third of which has been appointed by his predecessor (s). He names the entire Cabinet, which is responsible to him, and also to the Chamber in that members remain in office only so long as supportable by votes of confidence.

Administration of the States
2. Syria



* 1 French advisor and 1 French inspector on Agriculture
1 French advisor on Finances
1 French advisor on Posts and Telegraphs

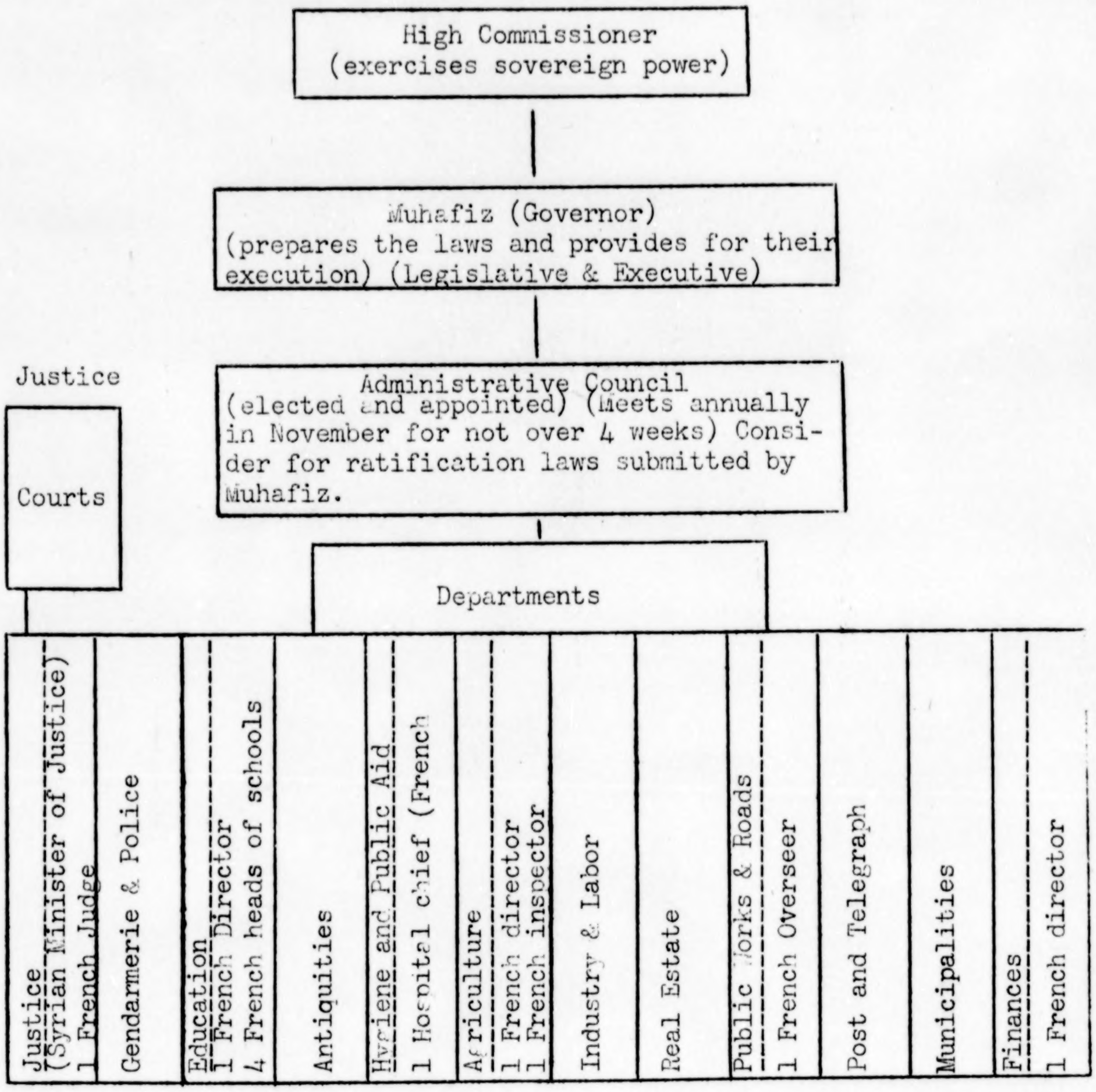
Special Administration of Bedouin Tribes.
The affairs of the Bedouin tribes are under the direction of a special administration,

The President is elected by the Chamber.

The President appoints the Prime Minister who nominates the other Cabin member for presidential appointment. The members of the Cabinet are al responsible individually and collectively to the Chamber.

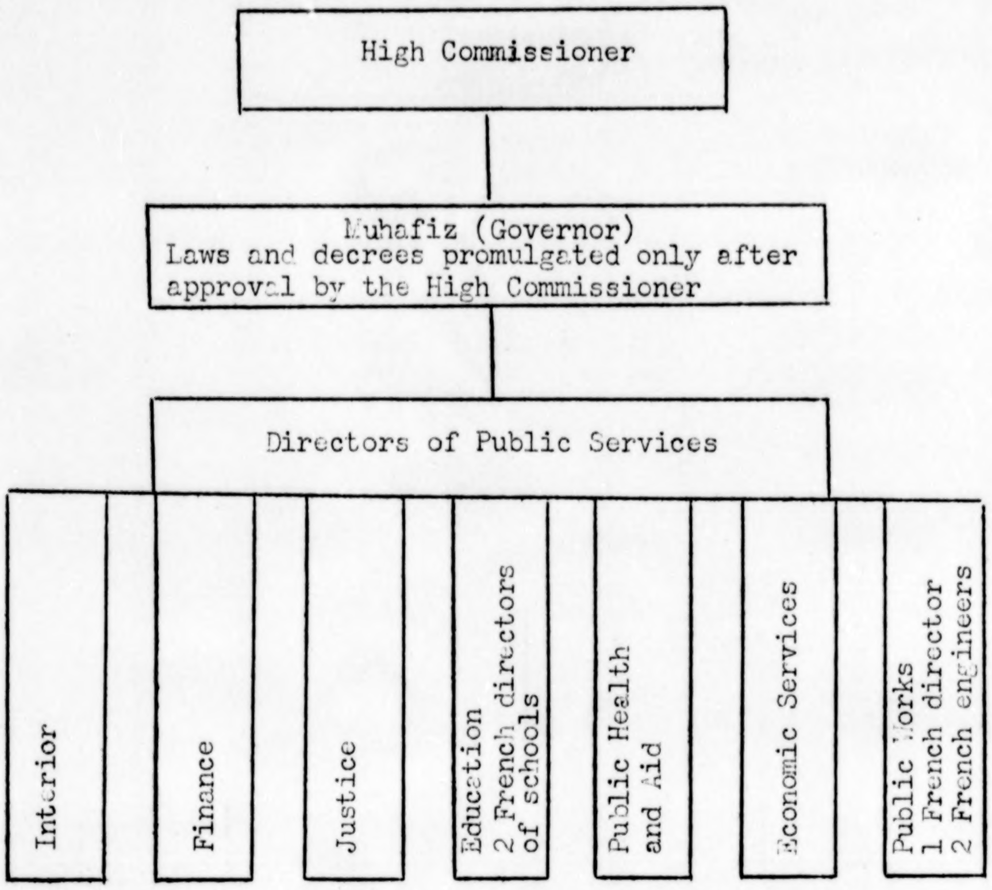
Administration of Separate States (Cont'd)

3. Muhafaza of Latakia



Administration of Separate States (Cont'd)

4. Muhafaza of Jebel ed Druze



Government Council
10 members appointed
Meets annually in autumn to
examine budget

Administration of 3 districts (Kazas) with chief towns of:

Suwaydah	Ṣalkhad	Shacbah
(Mudīrīyahs)	(Mudīrīyahs)	(Mudīrīyahs)
Villages	Villages	Villages

(Larger villages organized as municipalities, and administered by a council, members proposed by people and appointed by governor)

b. Local Government in the Lebanon.

(1) Municipality of Beirut (Special Charter), issued July 30, 1924. Arrêté No. 2671. It differs from the constitution of other municipalities in that Beirut has more autonomy and is in closer touch with the Central Government. All references to higher authority go direct to the Minister of the Interior.

(a) The mayor is appointed, not elected. He is also Administrator of the District, and directly under the Minister of the Interior. His salary is paid by the Central Government.

(b) The Municipal Council is elected. It consists of:

5 Sunni Muslims
1 Shiite Muslim, or Druze
2 Maronites
2 Greek Orthodox
1 Representative of Minority Sects
4 Representatives of foreigners
(elected by nationals of states members of League of Nations or U.S.A.) Members of foreign diplomatic and consular corps are ineligible to membership

This Council meets every two weeks.

The powers of Beirut Municipal Council include all usual functions of municipal councils, and in addition:

1. Fixing of tariff for public conveyances
2. Making provision for the poor
3. Passing on projects for construction, preparation or demolition
4. Supervising all public services of the city

Execution of legislation is subject to approval by the Central Government.

(2) Government of Municipalities in Lebanon. There are 120 incorporated municipalities, governed by elective municipal councils. Councilmen are elected for terms of four years. Meetings are private and minutes are transmitted directly to the Minister of the Interior.

(a) Powers of the Council. It passes on all affairs of the municipality and acts in advisory capacity to central authority on their request. Most municipal council functions require approval of the Ministry of Interior, e.g., budget, municipal taxes, change or status of public roads, gardens, etc., and price-fixing for necessities, as flour, meat, butter, wood, ice, vegetables, oil, etc. The council is forbidden to make any proclamation or express its views on political, religious or administrative systems.

(b) The mayor is appointed from among the members of the council, and serves without pay. His powers include:

1. Appointment of all municipal employees not appointed by some other fixed regulation, subject to Administration approval.

2. Award of contracts with the assistance of two councillors. In contracts for public works, the Director of Public Works must be included. Dual capacity of Mayor a) head of municipal government and b) agent of central government.

28. Political Parties.

a. The Syrian Nationalist party, with its aim the complete union of the four states of Syria with a single government (in which there would be a Muslim majority !), would subject the Christian minorities including the more westernized coastal population, to the conservative Muslims of the interior. The most influential member of this party is Sa'd Allāh al-Jābri of Aleppo, who is an ex-Cabinet member. A solution to the religious problem involved is sought by the two other political parties, the Pan-Arabs and the Popular Party, who have in common the desire to bridge religious and racial differences.

b. Pan-Arabism declares "We do not ask whether a man is Christian or Muslim, Druze or of the 'Alawīyīn, so long as he is a good Arab". The leader of this party was Dr. 'Abd al-Raḥmān Shāhbandar, a Muslim of Damascus, highly educated, of noble character and ideals. He was banished by the Turks, returned during the World War, fought in the Druze rebellion, was banished by the French, and later returned to Damascus. He was shot there by Arabs who opposed him, and is honored as a martyr.

(1) Pan-Arabs include Wahābies, Sunnis, Shiites, Christians (mainly Greek Orthodox), Iraqis, Transjordanians, peasants and nomads, with

no distinction of class, religion or status.

(2) Even staunch advocates of the pan-Arab ideal say that it matters little whether thirty years will have to elapse or fifty, before a union of the Near-Eastern Arab states can become more than a dream. What does matter is that it is gradually replacing all other spiritual ambitions of the Arabs. In Muslim countries the dividing-line between religious and purely national issues often becomes invisible; but whereas before 1914 the accent used to rest on the religious aspects, since the last War it has shifted to the national ones. Pan-Arabism in Syria is not identical with pan-Islamism. On the other hand, it is encroaching on most of the ethical foundations of Arab existence. A former Prime Minister stated: "Pan-Arabism more than anything else evokes the very best qualities in an Arab: idealism, courage, self-sacrifice. At present all other spiritual ambitions are purely abstract for us. We shall have time for them when our forces are no longer needed for the achievement of an all-Arab collaboration".

Nevertheless intelligent Syrians admit that for the time being pan-Arabism in whatever form, can be no more than a distant ideal, and that for the next few years Syria must concentrate on reducing her negative trade balance, stabilizing her native administrative machinery, and creating an army.

c. The third political party is the Youth Movement called the Iron Shirt or Syrian Popular Party, founded by Anṭūn Sa'ādak about 1933. He is a man in his middle thirties or early forties, and his followers include Ni'mah Thābit, Ma'mūn Iyās, George Ḥakīm (now teaching in the American University of Beirut) and Fakhri Ma'lūf (now studying at the University of Michigan). This party wishes to abolish parliamentarianism which it regards as corrupt. It does not nominate any representatives to Parliament. The party members seem sincere idealists; they exclude religious differences and aim at educating Syrians. Their program concerns Syrian rather than Arab.

(1) Sa'ādah started the movement chiefly among the unemployed and discontented youth. His program is to make Syria a dictatorship,

with himself at the head. He is influenced about equally by Germany and Italy, and lived for years in Germany. His organization uses the Fascist salute. The center of his activity used to be Beirut, but now he is in Sao Paulo, Brazil, writing for the newspapers and spreading propaganda. He has thousands of followers in Syria, in Lebanon, and in New York.

d. Influential Muslims in Beirut are ʿUmar Bey Dāʿūq, an ex-Mayor, and ʿUmar Bayhum, who is the wealthiest Muslim in the city.

Influential men in Damascus:

Jamīl Mardam Bey, ex-Prime Minister of Syria, a good man.

Saʿīd al-Ghazzi, cousin of Fawzi al-Ghazzi, who collaborated on the drawing up of the Syrian constitution. Is well-known and honored, a dependable and responsible lawyer.

Fāris al-Khūri, brother of Fāyiz Bey al-Khūri, is a professor at the law school, liked by the Nationalist party. He is a good speaker, and a pillar of Syrian Nationalism.

ʿĀrif Bey al-Nakadi, a Druze. He is very liberal, honest, solid, of good reputation, and well-liked by the Nationalist Party. He was editor of al-Ayyām in its prime. Ex-Minister of Justice (?). He is liked by both Muslims and Christians.

Shakih Arslān, a Druze leader, has strong connections with Berlin and is reported to be working on Goebbel's staff.

29. Foreign Policy.

a. Prior to the Allied occupation of Syria and Lebanon, the Syrian States had no independent foreign policy; it was only a reflection of that of the French. Since the summer of 1941, with the ousting of Vichy French forces, and the establishment of independent Syria and Lebanon, there has been some indication of formation of attitudes But it must be remembered that although Syria and Lebanon are nominally independent, the government must also answer to a Free French High Commissioner as well as British martial law.

b. Free French recognition of independence there has produced expressed friendship to the United Nations. However, there are many factors which divide the loyalties of the Syrians and Lebanese. Ever since the establishment of the French mandate, in the face of popular opposition, there has existed some hostility toward the French. The atrocities of the Vichy foreign troops in the Merj'aoun in July 1941 have universalized this hostility. It is highly conceivable that the demarcation between the two French groups has not been completely accomplished. The Free French still are recognized as French.

c. Cooperation with Great Britain is complicated chiefly if not solely by the Zionist issue. Both Christians and Muslims have expressed strong sympathy for the Arabs of Palestine, and some of them have crossed into Palestine to participate in riots against the Jewish expansion there.

d. The United States has enjoyed a reputation of being non-imperialist. As far back as 1920 at the time of the King-Crane Commission, the native population preferred an American mandate over that of any European country. Even today, Lebanese groups in the United States are suggesting the establishment of such an American mandate over Lebanon. The friendly declaration of the Department of State in relation to the recognition of Syrian and Lebanese independence has won added approval.

(1) Heavy emigration, particularly of Lebanese, to Argentina and Brazil has resulted in another strong tie with the Americas. This is a mixed blessing as some pro-Axis leaders have found there an excellent base from which to operate and in which to receive support from Berlin.

(2) The official attitude of the Lebanese Republic is shown by the visit of Alfred Naqqāsh, President, his Prime Minister, and the Minister of Foreign Affairs to Mr. Engert, the American Consul General at Beirut, on December 10, 1941. In view of the Japanese attack on American possessions, they wished to express their "sentiments of

deep sympathy" to the United States, and to pledge their complete support of the allied course.

c. Relations with other Arab countries are influenced by the Pan-Arab movement (see paragraph 28). There has been official discrediting of the Mufti of Jerusalem, as well as Rashid Ali, for their support of the Axis cause.

30. Important Alien Groups.

There is no available information on the number of aliens residing in the Syrian States. However, as has already been pointed out, fear of pro-Nazi activity arises not only from German agents but also from sections of the local Arab population.

During the period before the outbreak of war, there were no restrictions upon visitors coming into Syria. Consequently, there was ample opportunity for Fifty Column activity. The number of German tourists increased from 732 in 1932 to 3,266 in 1938.

There are a large number of Iraqis dwelling in Beirut who give strong support to Rashid Ali. (Spring, 1941)

2756

Section V

ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

31. General. The livelihood of the Syrians and the Lebanese--especially the former--is almost completely dependent both directly and indirectly upon agriculture. While entrepreneurial activity engages many Lebanese and some Syrians, the domestically produced goods in which they deal are mainly from field and orchard.

a. Within the Syrian States, production of cereals, over the period 1934-1938, averaged 850,000 metric tons. Of this figure, it was possible for them to export an average of 26,000 metric tons. Exports of 2,500 tons of cotton seed and 6,300 tons of olive oil represent a larger proportion of the crop. Exports each year include also a few tons of each of the other principal foodstuffs. Thus the country's production of cereal, leguminous and citrus crops is a little more than enough for its customary dietary. There is a slight meat deficiency, met by imports. Since the population numbers three and one-half million, one may conjecture that the foraging and grain levies of an invading army might support several divisions only if the welfare of the populace were not a matter of conscience or policy. This conjecture takes into account the non-availability of an incomplete subjugation of the remoter regions (which might be almost as well stocked as central points). It also recognizes that commercial concentrations never embrace a large portion of the crop, even during the shipping season (late fall).

(1) Conversely there is occasion for recognizing that, while a friendly army remains in Syria, there is enough dislocation of life to necessitate imports of foodstuffs, not only for the military but also to supplement civilian supplies. The country produces no coffee, tea or chocolate, and little sugar--articles of importance to morale as well as health. Figures show annual consumption of coffee, 402 grams; tea, 50 grams; and chocolate, 121 grams.

a. The masses have dietary customs not unlike those of the peoples of neighboring countries. In this connection, however, one notes (Appendix 31) that the reported per capita production of wheat is 136 kilograms,

2756

compared with 211 in Turkey, while the amounts of all cereals reported are respectively 236 and 419. Since these amounts represent 36% less wheat and 44% less cereals in the Syrian States than in Turkey where many of the people enjoy at best a level of living marginal to want, it appears that conditions must be exceedingly difficult for many Syrians.

b. The livestock census may be reasonably complete because it is a basis for taxation. For each 1,000 population, there were 649 sheep, 526 goats and 105 cattle and water buffalo.

The complete live stock census for the two most recent years reported shows:

	1937	1938
Horses	72,357	90,030
Mules	28,355	29,650
Donkeys	153,221	182,234
Cows	335,471	
Buffaloes	9,757	491,918
Sheep	2,273,524	3,069,377
Goats	1,659,514	2,630,988

Pigs 6,000 in Lebanon
3,643 elsewhere

c. Because they are luxuries for the masses, the principal leguminous and radiciform foods (Appendix 31), appear to be produced in exportable quantities. The total crop, if entirely consumed at home, would add little more than variety to the diet. The people appear to fare much better in the matter of fruits (Appendix 31), even though the figures presented lead to an unjustifiably cheerful impression. The distortion is due to the failure to separate fresh and dried fruits. The reporter has not undertaken this interpolation for the simple reason that the quantities involved are relatively small.

(2) Vegetable oils are the only product of the country which appear to offer any economic incentive to an invader (Appendix 31, Table II), and this is little enough, except to the most fat-starved nation. At the same time, one must recognize that, in the eyes of a raiding invader, the relative availability of these products makes the production figures of more moment than the exported surpluses.

(3) Reported shipments of foodstuffs by the British to the Syrian states

are entirely understandable. The usual production was only slightly above the customary use of the people and often actually less than their needs. War-time dislocations have increased the needs of food imports in addition to the requirements of armies quartered there. To insure adequacy as well as to build civilian morale, the presence of a friendly occupying army necessitates adding to the local supplies in this land, in which an enemy intruder might still find much valuabl loot, albeit at the expense of the populace and in disregard of their welfare.

(4) Tobacco and sugar rate separate mention. Turkey's usual tobacco exports are over seven and one-half times as great as the Syrian crop, and are available to Axis purchase. Thus tobacco cannot be a desideratum in any contemplated conquest of Syria. While a very small amount of cane is produced, there is no real sugar industry in the Syrian states. The only refinery has a capacity of thirteen tons per day--apparently not over thirteen hundred tons per season--less than four per cent of the annual consumption (imports). Per capita consumption of sugar is greater than in many nearby lands so provision of a customary supply may be more important than in the latter country.

(5) The outstanding fact about the production and consumption of food in the Syrian states is that the masses have barely enough to meet their minimum needs, while the privileged few at and near the top of the socio-economic structure have developed tastes according to a standard of living which cannot be met by domestic production. Thus, there is a double burden involved in the supplying of Syria by the United Nations: supplementing the diet of the common people to maintain health and efficiency, and providing enough of the luxuries to sustain and promote the morale of the élite, who condition if they do not control the general attitudes.

b. The Syrian States are of little interest for their subsoil treasure. The only mineral importance of the country lies in the transit trade in petroleum.

(1) There are large areas of lignite beds the exploitation of which was

attempted during World War I, but the quality is so low that the Syrian railways have recently prepared to resort to burning wood from the country's inadequate forests, due to the blockade of customary supplies of foreign coal.

(2) Good deposits of bitumens around Hasbayya, and Makharin and Dummar are reported; while rich asphalt deposits have been exploited in the Alouite regions. Over 2,000 tons of asphalt were exported in 1937 for road surfacing, the amount falling below one hundred tons in 1938. However, this is evidence of availability of road-building material for domestic use. There is an abundance of limestone in most sections and some scoria. By 1933 there were cement factories at Shakka, near Tripoli, and Dummar, near Damascus. Annual exports of "natural and artificial" cements have reached 50,000 to 60,000 tons, so there is a useful amount of highway materials available in the country.

2756

32. Manufactures.

The chief industrial cities are Aleppo, Beirut, Tripoli and Damascus, followed by Homs and Hama.

Old industries which have been modernized are:

Weaving - Aleppo, Damascus, Homs, Hama, Idlib
  cotton weaving declining because of Japanese imports
  silk weaving revived by tariff protection
  wool weaving, Diab factory in Damascus important
Tanneries- Damascus, Beirut, Aleppo
Distilling- Beirut, Lebanon
Soap - Damascus, Aleppo, Beirut, Tripoli
Flour, water mills being replaced by modern mills
Candied fruit and confectionary - Beirut, Damascus

Tariff protection has resulted in the rapid development of industry along modern lines. Old handicrafts are giving place to the growth of modern factory production. New factories equipped with the latest mechanical devices have sprung up in most of the important cities. Shoe factories, carpentry and furniture-making are developing.

The oil refinery of the Iraq Petroleum Company is at Tripoli. This refinery has 120,000 tons* of crude oil, sufficient for one year at the refinery. If the machinery were moved to Palestine, it could be restored in six weeks. Seventy percent of the state revenue of Syria comes from the refinery.

Capacity monthly: 6,000 tons fuel oil
15,000 tons gas oil
600 tons kerosene
2,200 tons gasoline

This is not enough for local consumption. Damaged installation prevents it from functioning as a naval fuel station.

New Industries:

Cotton spinning - Tripoli, from raw cotton raised in North Syria

---

*February, 1942

Cement, two factories in Shikka near Tripoli, one in Dummar near Damascus. These supply 60% of cement used in Syria

Match factories now supply entire country's demand Beirut, Damascus, Dāmūr.

Hosiery and Knitting, Beirut, Damascus, Aleppo

Cigarettes, developed rapidly after the establishment of the banderole system

Beer, two factories

Alcohol, two factories

Canning

Electrical Industry

There is a large new Italian textile factory in Beirut.

The production of olive oil is important. From 1926-33 the average production was 11,062 tons, the exports were 2,263 tons, the imports were 213 tons leaving 9,012 tons for local consumption.

33. Utilities

a. Several hydro-electric establishments supply

(1) Electricity to the large cities. The most powerful of these dynamo is established at the bottom of the Rishmaya Valley where the waters of the River Safa are turned into the gorge by a long tunnel through the mountain.

(2) Another hydroelectric plant uses the power of the Dog River, taking the water where it leaves the Jaïtha Cave and leading it by a channel along the mountain side to a precipitous drop into the valley a third of the way down to the sea. This supplies the villages of the neighboring coast.

(3) Another hydroelectric company, Lebanese in capital and management, has two generators at different levels on the Kadisha river and furnishes a bountiful supply of light and power to Tripoli and the neighbo ing villages.

(4) Rishmaya is supplied with electricity by a plant established in the mouth of the mountain gorge at the edge of the town.

(5) Damascus has a hydro-electric plant run by the water from Ain el Fiji in the Anti Lebanon mountains.

(6) In some other towns electricity is furnished by generators run on coal-burning engines. There are potential water power resources which may be developed.

b. Ice plants are found in the larger cities: in Beirut, Damascus, Tripoli, Aleppo, -- and probably others as Homs, Hama, Latakia, Sidon and Suwaydah.

c. Water works.

The water supply of Beirut is abundant and pure. It is taken by special canal from near the source of the Dog River at Jaïtha. It is led down the mountain about three miles through an open aqueduct and tunnel to the filter beds at sea level at Dbaiye. From here it is pumped through pipe to reservoirs on a hill in Beirut whence it is distributed to the city.

The supply of Damascus is excellent, being brought down from the pure source of el Fiji. The difficulty is that the old supply of water from the Barada river that flows through the centre of the town, is still distributed in public fountains and used by many of the populace. In Tripoli there is an abundant water supply, but its source, taken from the Kadisha river, has been open to possible infection, and unless it is chlorinated, there is risk in its use.

Aleppo has a supply of pure water brought to the city from a distant spring, but it is insufficient for needs of the population and is eked out by the use of water from the Koucik River of unreliable quality, and by cistern water. Towns along the Orontes River, as Homs and Hama, filter the water from its mud by passing it through large jars of coarse pottery.

In the Lebanon many of the villages have good water supplies distributed to the houses through pipes brought from reliable sources by gravity. In particular, the springs of the village of Hamana, are piped long distances to supply a number of the popular summer resorts at lower levels.

2756

d. Sanitary Installations

While sewage systems have been introduced in most of the large cities, the final disposal of the sewage is unsatisfactory. Sewage is poured into the sea or an adjoining river. Often the sewers do not reach the limits of the city, and there results a problem of waste disposal with unsanitary conditions. No facilities for the sanitary disposal of human waste are to be found around the majority of the country villages.

In Beirut in 1938, the sewage system of Beirut was extended by 4000 meters of new sewage pipes, with 349 branches.

e. Irrigation works on a large scale have been recently undertaken at Homs on the Orontes, and at Lake Yammûneh. At Homs a large barrage of the Lake of Homs has been completed with a main irrigation ditch, and secondary and tertiary irrigation ditches of concrete of more than 100 kilometers in length. Over 5000 hectares (12,000 acres) of land belonging to five villages in the neighborhood of Homs are thus irrigated.

Works have been undertaken to conserve and distribute the waters of Lake Yammûneh on the heights of the Lebanon opposite Baalbek, for the purpose of irrigating the plain of the Bkaa. The work has progressed slowly and it is not believed to be yet completed.

A large part of the country depends on irrigation for its existence. Ancient irrigation systems of especial note are those of the gardens of Damascus; of the old Roman aqueduct of Beirut, and of the famous water wheels of Hama.

2756

34. Railroads:

a. The railroad system of Syria is composed of various foreign-built lines constructed before World War I, most of them being French-built, plus the Hijāz Railroad (the Mecca Pilgrim Route) which was the first Muslim-built railroad in the world. During the period of the French Mandate the lines were run by the state under a kilometer guarantee of profits for the private stockholders. Since the British-Free French conquest of Syria (June-July, 1941), the railroads have been operated and renovated by the British military.

Maintenance and Efficiency

Until the early 1930's, efficiency was good: personnel cuts then reduced it and affected the maintenance in all branches. By 1938, the total personnel was only 2,796 and -- excluding the Baghdad line -- only 10 regular trains per day were operating over 500 miles of system. After 1936, Francophobia was no longer a personnel problem nor is there reason to suppose that the Syrian personnel is now hostile to the British.

b. Capacity

Total traffic, 1938:

Passengers (excluding CFH)	
Standard	419,000
Narrow	860,000
	1,279,000

Freight (net tonnage)	
Standard	540,000
Narrow	1,068,000
	1,608,000

This increased after the start of World War II as indicated by fuel consumption figures:

Fuel: 1938	Tons		
	Standard	Narrow	Both
Coal	16,000	11,000	27,000
Briquettes	2,000	14,000	16,000
	18,000	25,000	43,000

By early 1940, this rose to an estimated yearly 10,000 tons. Coal came from Bulgaria, Turkey, ʻIrāq, and Great Britain. In October of 1940, 38 locomotives were being converted to burn oil.

c. Estimate

Section (consult sketch-map appended)	Individual Actual Capacity of Section		
	No. of trains per 24 hours in each direction	Weight of military stores per train (tons)	Estimated simultaneous capacity of sections
Samank-Darʻā	8	110	5
Darʻā-Damascus.........	10	180	5
Damascus-Rayak.........	12	70	6
Beirut-Rayak...........	12	65	6
Aleppo-Rayak...........	12	220	4
Tripoli-Homs...........	10	260	4
Aleppo-Meydaniekbez....	9	260	4
Aleppo-Tellkotchek.....	7	280	3

d. Question of Supplying Additional Rolling Stock:

The Syrian railroads do not form a system, pending the completion of the standard gauge connections between Haifa and Tripoli. Meantime, narrow gauge stock can only be put on the Syrian lines at Beirut, Acre, or Haifa, standard stock at Haifa, Jaffa or Suez for the southern standard lines. For the standard lines in Syria proper, the only points where new stock can be put on are Tripoli, a Turkish port, or Baghdād. The problem at the latter point is complicated by the fact that, to date, Baghdād's connection with the Persian Gulf is still narrow-gauge.

The standard gauge line from Haifa is to be completed as far as Beirut in June (1942) and to Tripoli by the end of the year. Announcement of the completion of the Ras en-Nakura three-quarter-mile tunnel has been made.

For technical details, see Appendix 34.

35. Roads

The French administrators made one of their first tasks the construction of a strategic network of all weather highways. Between the sea and the desert there is an extensive system of double-track roads usable in all seasons, many of them asfalted. The Lebanon is particularly well provided, several roads leading into the mountains from the main arterial on the coast. Some of these, however, do not cross the mountains, and on some there are hairpin turns difficult for heavy transport to negotiate.

The borderlands of the desert, and the Hauran Plain, are generally flat and featureless, so that road communications are easy to install, and at some points destroyed installations can be bypassed with little difficulty. In the desert travel is more by compass than along roads, although routes are fairly well defined between principal points.

Extensive detail on highway conditions and distances, together with much information of direct strategic application is presented in Appendix 35. The precipitation maps presented therewith should be useful in interpretation where earth-surfaced roads are in question.

36. Shipping and Ports.

a. The ports of importance are, in order of importance, Beirut and Tripoli in Lebanon, Latakia in the Alaouite state, and Sidon (Saida) and Tyre (Sur) in Lebanon.

The following table gives the amount of traffic 1935-1938.

	Beirut		Tripoli		Latakia		Others	
	No. Ships	Tonnage Net	No. Ships	Tonnage Net	No. Ships	Tonnage Net	No. Ships	Tonnage Net
1935	1,007	2,410,074	64	83,717	554	1,232,047	9	8,359
1936	997	2,294,298	81	79,758	608	1,464,285	21	17,160
1937	1,030	2,486,422	88	92,296	613	1,575,111	47	30,088
1938	1,060	2,713,381	105	127,950	603	1,566,526	19	23,801

Small sailing vessels carry a fairly heavy volume of trade. The number of sailing vessels in each port is as follows:

Beirut 1,123 vessels: Chekka 739: Tripoli 661: Rouad 534

Latakia 261 " : Tartous 257: Jebel 244:

Totals amount to the following: (for Sailing Ships)

	All Ports Sailing Vessels	Net Tonnage	Unloaded	Loaded
1935	3,985	99,420	74,651	81,334
1936	4,570	108,843	90,876	88,453
1937	4,811	130,101	103,877	137,640

b. Beirut has a protected harbor capable of handling large volumes of goods and is used by all the main steamship lines operating in the eastern Mediterranean. The port comprises an Old Basin and a New Basin.

(1) Management. The port is run by an incorporated port company (Compagnie du Port), which is associated with the railroad company.

(2) A Free Zone is included for goods in transit to Iraq and Iran.

(3) Plan of Port. The port is formed by two moles, a) the North Mole (Jetée du Large) extending for a total length of 1,401 yards east from Rās ish-Shāmiyeh, and b) the Digue Abri breakwater, 380 yards long, running roughly north and south at right angles to the end of the Nort Mole. About 300 or 325 yards west of this breakwater, and roughly parallel to it, is the old Coaling Wharf (old Quai Militaire or East Mole), which is about 350 yards long.

(a) The Old Basin is the area west of the Coaling Wharf. The entrance between the Coaling Wharf and the North Mole is 160 yards wide. There is a depth of 7 fathoms at the entrance, which gradually decreases to fathoms about 100 yards off the southern side, and thence to one fathom off the quays on that side.

(b) The New Basin is situated between the Digue Abri and the old Quai Militaire or East Mole. The south side of the basin consists of a quay 1000 feet long built on reclaimed land. This reclaimed land in St. André Bay has an area of about 40 acres. The width of the entrance, between the end of the breakwater and the Jetée du Large is about 270 yards.

(4) Docking facilities.

(a) In the Old Basin steamers are moored close to each other parallel to the East Mole. Parallel to the North Mole (Jetée du Large) are berths for two steamers. In the western part of the Old Basin small craft are moored parallel and close to each other with stern lines to the North Mole.

(b) In the New Basin are the following wharves:

1. Quai Nord, on the north end of the East Mole. Berthing space of 446 feet with depth alongside of 26 1/4 feet.

2. Quai Est, on the east side of the East Mole. Berthing length of about 665 feet, with depth alongside of 26 1/4 feet.

3. Quai Sud, on the south side of the New Basin. Berthing length of about 984 feet, with depth alongside of 26 1/4 feet.

4. Digue Abri. Berthing length of about 1,083 feet with depth alongside of about 34 1/2 feet.

(c) Military traffic. Minimum depth of 40 feet at end. Disembarkation of troops and matériel is done at the Quai Militaire (Coaling Wharf). A railroad spur runs onto this wharf, and 2 wide streets with streetcars run from this quay to the city.

(d) Capacity of harbor. It is estimated that there is room for three 10,000 ton cruisers, two supply ships and seven large destroyers.

(5) Seaplane facilities. The situation of the seaplane harbor is 33° 54' N, 35°29' E.

(a) Hangar. There is reported to be a flying boat hangar (owned by Air France) at the shore end of the Eastern Mole. It has accomodation for three flying boats.

(b) Port. Seaplanes can use St. André Bay except when there is a north wind, which rarely happens. It is then possible to land within the port area.

1. Mooring. Only one mooring buoy was available in 1941.

(c) Fueling facilities have been installed by Air France and by the Shell Company.

(d) Repair facilities. There is a 30-ton raft with a crane suitable for lifting seaplanes. Repairs can be made by lifting planes onto the raft since beaching is not practicable.

(6) Cranes -- See Appendix 36.

(7) Port Craft.

(a) Tugs

	I.H.P.	Length	Bunker Capacity
Jebal Sannine	750	114 ft.	50 ton coal
Syrien	350	82 ft.	30 ton coal

(b) Motor launches. 25 of these, under 90 feet in length. Total passenger capacity, 560.

(c) Salvage vessels--none. But two above-mentioned tugs have efficient pumping equipment with a capacity of 100 tons hourly and a fire extinguishing capacity of 50 tons hourly.

(d) Lighters. In June 1941 there were over 200 lighters, ranging in capacity from 10 to 200 tons.

(e) Water barges and oilers.

1. Oiler "Wardian No. 3", self-propelled. Capacity 260 tons.

2. Six water barges, four self-propelled. One of 350 tons, remainder 100 to 150 tons.

(8) Repair facilities. Slipway, owned by port company. Length 82 feet; length of cradle, 75 feet; draft forward, 7 feet, aft, 10 feet; lifting power, 60 tons.

(9) Fuel supplies.

(a) Coal and patent fuel.

1. Michel Bey Ghalié

2. Société des Combustibles du Levant.

3. Michel Sahnaoui et Fils. Stocks of patent fuel, "Crown" brand, in 1941 estimated at 40,000 tons, of which the D.H.P. railroad was estimated to hold 25,000 tons, stored in some of their larger stations. The remaining 15,000 tons was stored in sheds near the quay area.

4. Method of coaling; both alongside and at anchor, by baskets. Normal bunkering rate, 50 tons hourly.

5. Two coaling wharves, each 656 feet long. Depth of water alongside at mean low water springs; 25 feet, for one wharf, 36 feet for the other.

6. Large coal storage warehouse available, owned by Compagnie Générale du Levant, Beirut.

(10) Water supplies. Drinking and boiler water are available throughout the year. Vessels can be supplied both alongside and at anchor.

(11) Transport facilities.

(a) Rail connections.

1. With Damascus, by 105 cm. rachet line. This line is very slow, taking about (6-9 ?) hours to go from Damascus to Beirut.

2. With Tripoli and Haifa. See paragraph 34.

(b) Road connections.

1. To Damascus there is a good macadam road.

2. To Tripoli there is a good macadam road.

3. To Haifa there is a good macadam road.

(12) Power. Supplied by Diesel driven station in eastern part of Beirut on Tripoli road. Output 6,500 kilowatts.

(13) Repair facilities.

(a) Joseph White and Sons shops in 1933 had equipment to do the following marine repairs:

1. Foundry handled brass or iron castings up to two tons.

2. Machine shops could repair machine pieces up to two tons.

3. Coppersmiths could handle jobs of any size. Had portable acetylene outfit for use on shipboard.

4. Blacksmiths could work pieces up to 5 inches in diameter. Babbitt, anti-friction metal and pipes up to 6 inches could be obtained.

(14) Warehouses.

(a) Port Company of Beirut warehouse with superficial area of 7,000 square meters. 30,000 square meters of retained area used for storage

(b) Cold storage accommodation for 350 tons of fruit and meat was available in June, 1941.

(15) Labor is plentiful and experienced.

c. Tripoli port (al-Mīnā)

(1) This port is fairly large, but there are no docking facilities for large ships. The anchorage is open, but the weather is usually good. Large vessels anchor in Tripoli Roock in seven fathoms of water; small vessels anchor closer in shore in 3 1/2 fathoms.

(a) Landing is practicable at the port (al-Mīnā), except during strong northerly winds; at the port office mole or at a mole to the west of it, for boats of 5 feet draft. There is a good landing for boats on the sand beach on the southwest side of al-Mīnā promontory during strong northeast winds.

(2) Docking facilities.

(a) The old iron pier extends from the west side of the customs house and is about 100 yards long, with from 3 to 15 feet of water alongside There are two electric winches on this pier and a small railroad running to the warehouses.

(b) A new pier has been built, 290 feet long and 34 feet wide, but the depth alongside is only 2 feet to 3 feet, making it suitable for lighters only.

(3) Cranes--none

(4) Port Craft. These consist of 70 lighter, of from 20 to 50 tons each, and 4 towboats.

(5) Oil Berths. The oil pipe line and loading berths for tankers are east of the port (see British Admiralty Chart No. 1576). There are n facilities for fuelling ships. For details see Appendix.

(6) Transportation Connections.

(a) Railroads.

1. There is a standard gauge line running from Tripoli to Alepp via Homs.

2. The new Haifa-Tripoli standard-gauge line is nearing completion and will provide through connection with Egypt.

(b) Roads. There are good asphalted roads leading north along the coast to Latakia and south to Beirut. A good road connects Tripoli with Homs and Aleppo in Syria.

(7) Seaplane harbor. There is a very good berthing place for flying boats. There is a slipway for planes weighing up to 15 tons. For details, see appendix.

d. Latakia (French, Lattaquie; Arabic, il-Lādi'īyeh) is in the Alaouite state of the same name.

(1) Port facilities are poor. Vessels drawing 11 feet can anchor in the harbor. There was 18 feet of water alongside the wharves in 1935.

(2) Port craft consisted of about 20 lighters and one steam trawler o 20 tons capacity.

(3) Transportation connections.

(a) There is a first-class road to Tripoli and Beirut.

(b) There is a new military road over the mountains via Qadmus and Maṣyaf to Homs. This road branches off the main Tripoli-Latakia road at Bānjās, 30 miles south of Latakia.

(c) There is a new road northeast over the mountains to Antioch, in Turkey.

37. Commercial Aviation.

The airdromes of Beirut, of Damascus, of Tripoli, and the airport of Tripoli have been in use for commercial aviation under the Compagnie Air-France, for a number of years. The company was organized in 1929 with a line from Beirut to Marseilles, stopping en route in Greece and in Italy. In 1931, the service was extended: Beirut-Damascus-Baghdad-Basra-Karachi, and on to Saïgon.

The beautiful Beirut airdrome is a raised plateau surrounded by sand dunes near the sea to the south of the city. It was completed with hangars and elaborate station building in 1939. Until 1941 it had a daily service down the coast to Haifa.

A regular quarantine service is established at the airdrome.

The service reported for the year 1938 was:

City	Planes	Passengers
Airdrome of Beirut	130	465
Airport of Tripoli	74	364
Airdrome of "	140	406
" " Damascus	155	561
Total	499	1,796

(Military airdromes are established also at Aleppo, Rayak, Palmyra, and Deir-ez-Zor, with the airport of hydroplanes at the Beirut harbor)

38. Commerce

See Paragraph 31, and Appendix 31.

39. Communications have been developed primarily as an aid to the ruling of the territory, and secondarily as facilities for civilian use. Posts and telegraphs are owned and operated by the governments.

a. The Syrian States belong to the International Postal Union. In normal times, mails travel four times per week to and from Europe via the "Berlin-Baghdad" railway, and there is frequent despatch and receipt by sea through Beirut. There is weekly air mail service to Europe, and to Netherlands India. There is also a bi-weekly service by bus across the desert between Damascus and Baghdad.

b. Telegraphic communication exists between the principal towns, but the best means of rapid communication with other countries is by w/t (Radio Syria).

c. The internal telephone network is being rapidly developed and over 16,000 miles of lines are now in operation. Telephonic communication also exists with Palestine, Transjordan and Egypt.

d. Wireless stations are comprehensively developed throughout the country, the bulk of them being operated by the military authorities.

(1) All military and air stations are equipped with CW transmitters on m/f and a few of the former have h/f transmitters also. The naval station is at Beirut. The Government and commercial station is at Beirut (Radio Syria), and is owned by the Orient Radio Company, Paris. This is equipped with a 25 kw. alternator for l/f services, and a number of h/f transmitters and r/t sets. The station is situated 5 m. to the south of the city on the Haifa road.

(2) There are also civil air stations at Damascus and Tripoli, belonging to the "Air France" Company.

(3) At Tripoli and the pumping stations T2, T3, and T4, stations have been established by the IPC. (Iraq Petroleum Company)

(See also Appendix 39)

40. Finance.

The currency situation presumably is confused by the fact that the governments now in authority are different from that which issued the money now in use. When these states were under French mandate, the money used was pegged to the French franc at the rate of twenty francs to one Syrian pound. The stated rate of exchange, these states being included in the "sterling area", is 176.6 francs per pound sterling. This yields 2.195 Syrian pounds per United States dollar at current rates (April 1942).

a. Hence, the equivalents are about as follows:

£S 1	46 ¢
50 piastres (kursh)	23 ¢
25	11 ¢
10	5 ¢
5 ("1 franc")	2 ¢
1	1/2 ¢
1/2	1/4 ¢

b. There is a strong possibility that the presence of British troops in these countries sooner or later will result in acceptance of Palestinian coins and bills. Palestinian money is based on the pound sterling. One pound equals about four dollars. Fractional currency is in terms of mils.

1 mil	0.5 ¢
2 mils	0.8 ¢
5 mils	2 ¢
10 mils	4 ¢
20 mils	8 ¢
50 mils	20 ¢
100 mils	40 ¢

Appendix 23 -- Education

a. Types of Systems of Education in Syria:

(1) Southern European Type.

- (a) Government
- (b) French Catholic Schools
  - 1. Jesuits
    - Université St. Joseph
  - 2. Frères
  - 3. Sisters of Charity
    - and other Convent Schools
- (c) French Protestant
  - Collège Protestant des Jeunes Filles
- (d) Italian Catholic Schools
- (e) French Laïque Schools
- (f) Jewish (Alliance Israélite)
- (g) Native Systems modelled after Southern European type
  - 1. Greek Catholic
  - 2. Maronite
  - 3. Greek Orthodox

(2) Northern European Type.

- (a) Danish (Danish Mission to the Orient)
- (b) British
  - 1. British Syrian Mission
    - a. Teachers' Training-College for Girls
    - b. Primary and Secondary Schools
  - 2. Friends' Foreign Missionary Association
  - 3. Irish Reformed Presbyterian Mission
  - 4. Irish Presbyterian Mission
- (c) American
  - 1. American University of Beirut
  - 2. Syria Mission (Presbyterian)
    - a. School of Theology
    - b. Junior College for Women
    - c. Primary and Secondary Schools
  - 3. American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions
    - a. Aleppo College for Men
  - 4. Reformed Presbyterian Mission
  - 5. American School for Girls (Damascus) Dr. Essenberg
    - American Non-Sectarian Support
- (d) Native Schools Modelled after Northern European Type.
  - 1. Protestant
  - 2. Greek Orthodox
  - 3. Private

(3) Arab Type.

- (a) Old Type (Mosque School)
- (b) New Type

b. Technical and Higher Education.

(1) In Lebanon, manual training and domestic science are given in the higher schools at Beirut and in the normal schools for men and women. The women students in the normal school have a full course in dressmaking, needlework, child care, hygiene and domestic economy. The men students of the normal school receive training in carpentry,

blacksmithing, and mechanics twice a week at the School of Arts and Trades.

(2) Normal training is a two years' course. The first year is devoted to general studies in language and literature, Arab and French. mathematics, physical and natural sciences, psychology, history and geography, with drawing, music and manual training. The second year training is given in teaching and in practical pedagogy and school administration. Examinations at the end of each year lead to a diploma, the Brévet of a teacher of Lebanon, 1st and 2nd parts.

(3) The School of Arts and Trades (École des Arts et Métiers) graduated 42 students in 1937. A preparatory section has been established, to recruit promising candidates from all sections of Lebanon. In 1938, 344 students were enrolled.

(4) Technical training is given in private institutions. Sewing, embroidery, and various domestic sciences are taught in a Muslim school at Beirut, a few Italian schools in Beirut and Tripoli, the American Schools in Tripoli and Sidon, and the Ahaliah School in Beirut. This instruction is also given by various religious orders: the Sisters of Charity, the Sisters of Besançon, the Sisters of the Good Shepherd, and the Carmelite Sisters.

At the St. Joseph Orphanage of Sisters of Charity, blacksmithing, shoemaking, carpentry, and tailoring are taught. Cabinet making is taught at Ghazir Swiss Orphanage. Shoemaking is taught at two Muslim orphanages.

Agriculture lectures and conferences with farmers are given by an agriculture expert of the American University of Beirut.

(5) Among private secondary schools are four normal schools. There are two universities located in Beirut, the American University and the University of St. Joseph.

(a) The American University of Beirut, united with International College, includes the Preparatory School, the College of Arts and Sciences; the Medical School, which is Class-A by American standards, a School of Pharmacy, a School of Nursing, and modern hospitals --

all comprising the "best medical center between Vienna and Peiping". The instruction is in English, Arabic, and French. The Faculty is composed of Americans and Syrians.

(b) The University of St. Joseph is an excellent Jesuit University, with a notable record of Oriental research. The teaching is in French, and it includes schools of medicine, law, engineering, and theology.

c. In Syria --

(1) Normal courses are arranged to provide for those with practical experience, as well as for regular students.

(2) There are technical schools and Schools of Commerce in Damascus and Aleppo, the latter with a 3-year course.

(3) The Syrian University in Damascus with instruction in Arabic, includes a School of Medicine and a School of Law.

d. Government schools in Latakia include a Night School for Adults.

(1) Agricultural training is given to the graduate-assistants of the public schools each week at the Bouka agricultural station.

(2) The girls' schools teach embroidery, dressmaking, and domestic sciences, including mending, gardening, and child care.

(3) There are normal schools for both men and women.

(4) Private institutions include the Agricultural School of Bouka which is conducted by the Benedictine Fathers. Agricultural education in general has been unsuccessful because of the contempt for manual labor and lack of appreciation of such education by the farmers themselves. Several schools have started and failed, but the school at Bouka continues successfully with a two-year course.

e. General Summary of Educational Statistics.

Primary Schools, 1938

Place	Public Schools No.	Public Schools Pupils	Private Schools No.	Private Schools Pupils	Foreign Schools No.	Foreign Schools Pupils	Totals	Pupils
Syria	450	54,363	285	32,404	104	14,299	839	101,066
Latakia	143	11,437	21	1,610	30	2,294	194	15,341
Jebel Druze	39	3,014	30	1,167	21	1,283	90	5,464
Lebanon	177	18,306	1,180	76,196	510	37,010	1,867	131,512
Totals	809	87,120	1,516	111,377	665	54,886	2,990	253,383

Technical, Normal and Secondary Schools

Place	Public Schools No.	Public Schools Pupils	Private Schools No.	Private Schools Pupils	Foreign Schools No.	Foreign Schools Pupils	Totals	Pupils
Syria	17	4,158	9	839	16	2,401	42	7,398
Latakia	1	7	1	83	4	553	6	643
Lebanon	3	438	44	3,462	57	5,903	104	9,803
Jebel Druze	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Totals	21	4,603	54	4,384	77	8,857	152	17,844

Higher Institutions (Superieur)

Place	Public Schools No.	Public Schools Pupils	Private Schools No.	Private Schools Pupils	Foreign Schools No.	Foreign Schools Pupils	Totals	Pupils
Syria	5	356	---	---	---	---	5	356
Lebanon	---	---	---	---	28	1,228	28	1,228
Grand Totals	835	92,079	1,570	115,761	770	64,971	3,175	272,811

---

f. Summary: Foreign Schools in Syria (1938)

	No. of Schools	No. of Pupils	Breakdown of Pupils by Religious Groups: Muslim	Christian	Druze	'Alawī	Ismā-īlī	Jewish	Others
French	389	54,547	3,672	45,666	1,208	367	---	3,512	122
American	71	6,638	1,622	4,403	100	176	---	274	63
English	25	2,906	390	1,756	434	68	---	231	27
Italian	16	2,235	358	1,712	87	2	---	35	41
Danish	9	898	218	680	---	---	---	---	---
German	2	106	25	80	---	---	---	---	1
Swiss	1	80	2	77	---	---	---	---	1
Greek	1	115	---	115	---	---	---	---	---
Total	514	67,525	6,287	54,489	1,829	613	---	4,052	255
Grand Total, All Schools	2,654	279,598	152,572	104,930	11,032	4,522	239	4,947	1356

Sanjak of Alexandretta included in f. but not in e.

APPENDIX 31 TABLE I

CEREALS

PRODUCTION AND USE

(Metric Tons)

		Wheat	Barley	Maize	Millet	Oats	Rice	Total of these cereals
Production:	1934	443,042	292,090	16,028	79,391	14,531	2,870	
	1935	504,035	347,109	21,490	67,905	11,051	3,974	
	1936	427,390	308,100	18,756	53,855	10,922	3,820	
	1937	468,845	266,436	27,170	94,690	10,801	3,423	
	1938	627,365	32,355	27,339	84,673	4,851	2,840	
Total		2,470,677	1,246,090	110,783	380,514	52,156	16,927	
Average		494,135	249,218	22,156.6	76,102.8	10,431.2	3,385.4	855,429
Per capita average, kgs.		136.1	68.7	6.1	20.9	2.9	.9	235.7
Imports:	1934	31,649.1	3,377.2	2,850.5	2,813.4	211.	19,358.4	
	1935	6,059.2	617.8	268	30.7	100	18,832.3	
	1936	4,424.4	863	103.3	170.4	100	19,653.7	
	1937	14,490.4	2,314.9	56.7	411.6	46	18,883.8	
	1938	25,836.8	689.1	26.1	132	131.3	17,440	
Exports:	1934	14,211.7	5,290.9	41.3	11,849.2	47		
	1935	8,815.2	15,371.9	1,180.4	14,149.7	42.2		
	1936	47,864.2	72,866.4	2,257.7	25,813.3	122.1		
	1937	8,239.1	12,210	586.9	16,259.3	507.4		
	1938	7,778.9	31,940.5	612.8	21,648.1	128.7		
Total Exports		86,909.1	137,679.7	4,679.1	89,719.6	847.4		319,834.9
Total Imports		82,459.9	7,085.3	3,304.6	3,558.1	588.3	94,168.2	191,164.4
Net Exports		4,449.2	130,594.4	1,374.5	86,161.5	259.1		128,670.5
Net Imports							94,168.2	
Average Net Exports		889.8	26,118.8	274.9	17,232.3	51.8		25,734.1
Average Net Imports							18,833.6	
Average (available for) consumption		493,245.2	223,099.2	21,881.7	58,870.5	10,379.4	22,219	829,695
Per capita average, kgs.		135.9	61.5	6	16.2	2.8	6.1	228.5

APPENDIX 31 TABLE II

INDUSTRIAL CROPS

PRODUCTION AND USE

(Metric Tons)

		Cotton	Tobacco	Hemp	Sesame	Castor Beans	Cotton Seed	Olive Oil	Total
Production:	1934	2,682	3,356	820	2,456	205	4,981	12,896	
	1935	11,933	2,014	3,391	2,270	310	22,161	12,636	
	1936	13,908	5,409	1,497	2,805	118	25,829	9,809	
	1937	11,340	5,179	4,766	4,303	312	21,060	16,817	
	1938	15,961	3,054	3,464	5,313	68	29,644	15,457	
Total		55,824	19,012	13,938	17,147	1,013	103,675	67,615	
Average		11,164.8	3,802.4	2,787.6	3,429.4	202.6	20,735	13,523	
Per capita average, kgs.		3.1	1.	.8	.9	.1	5.7	3.7	
Imports:	1934	11,343.5	218.1	65.3	1,880.5	51.2	16.2	64.4	
	1935	10,503	278	115.1	1,562		5.2	79	
	1936	10,337.4	348.8	7.	30		29.5		
	1937	10,774.6	354.3	7.9	2,267.2	1.1	1.2	98.5	
	1938	10,878.6	351.3	11.8	1,391.4		13.1	59.4	
Exports:	1934	1,249.9	456.6	1.2	143.4	211	18.6	758.3	
	1935	6,401.4	679	7.7	1.9	125.6	3,133.8	5,921.8	
	1936	3,695.7	775.4	8.1	50.9	1.1	4,317.6	7,500.6	
	1937	3,658.2	1,208.3	6.7	26.4	39.6	3,658.2	8,787.3	
	1938	4,834.9	1,930.5	5.3	40.7	24.7	1,819.4	8,924.9	
Total exports		19,840.1	5,049.8	29.0	263.3	402.0	12,947.6	31,892.9	
Total imports		53,837.1	1,550.5	207.1	7,131.1	52.3	65.2	301.3	
Net exports			3,499.3			349.7	12,882.4	31,591.6	
Net imports		33,997		178.1	6,867.8				
Average net exports			699.9			69.9	2,576.5	6,318.3	
Average net imports		6,799.4		35.6	1,373.6				
Average (available for) consumption		17,964.2	3,102.5	2,823.2	4,803.	132.7	18,158.5	7,204.7	
Per capita average, kgs.		4.9	.9	.8	1.3	.04	5.	2.	

2756

APPENDIX 31 TABLE III

NON-CEREAL FOODS

PRODUCTION AND USE

(Metric Tons)

		Lentils	Chick Peas	Beans	Potatoes	Onions and Garlic	Vetches	Eggs	Totals Eggs not included
Production:	1934	25,322	11,351	13,481	45,191	39,441	39,220		
	1935	16,576	13,604	9,445	45,521	42,894	41,840		
	1936	25,851	10,642	10,531	39,922	31,938	41,025		
	1937	28,296	16,088	12,543	39,560	48,187	43,234		
	1938	42,765	19,319	13,636	40,838	43,010	44,707		
Total		138,810	71,004	59,636	211,032	205,470	210,026		
Average		27,762	14,200.8	11,927.2	42,206.4	41,094	42,005.2		179,195.6
Per capita average,kgs.		7.6	3.9	3.3	11.6	11.3	11.6		49.3
Imports:	1934	307.7	322.5	1,113.6	1,415.9	122.1	10	630.4	
	1935	798.9	26	1,027.6	671.9	136.9		736.7	
	1936	585.6	264.3	2,625.4	157.8	372.8	14.2	312.9	
	1937	1,075.4	21.5	1,121.6	613.7	502.8	45.9	249.6	
	1938	833.1	105.7	764.8	556.9	364	1.8	156.8	
Exports:	1934	1,213.8	4,895.5	4,054.5	3,713.9	19,188.3	1,343.4	4,235.9	
	1935	3,171.3	2,143.6	3,923.9	4,779.5	17,900.2	2,102.7	2,363.3	
	1936	5,292.5	4,962.2	9,192.4	7,726.4	10,205.8	5,133.3	5,575.9	
	1937	5,225.8	3,445.4	3,637.1	6,570	21,412.1	1,981.8	5,350.5	
	1938	12,428.2	15,630.1	4,717.7	3,816.3	22,036.5	4,915.6	5,620	
Total exports		27,331.6	31,076.8	25,525.6	26,606.1	90,742.9	15,476.8	23,145.6	216,759.8
Total imports		3,600.7	740	7,253	3,416.2	1,498.6	71.9	2,086.4	16,580.4
Net exports		23,730.9	30,336.8	18,272.6	23,189.9	89,244.3	15,404.9	21,059.2	200,179.4
Average net exports		4,746.2	6,067.4	3,654.5	4,637.9	17,848.9	3,080.9	4,211.8	40,035.8
Average (available for) consumption		23,015.8	8,133.4	8,272.7	37,568.5	23,245.1	38,924.3		139,159.8
Per capita average,kgs.		6.3	2.2	2.3	10.4	6.4	10.7		38.3

APPENDIX 31 TABLE IV

FRUITS

PRODUCTION AND USE

(Metric Tons)

		Olives	Grapes	Citrus	Apricots	Figs	Melons and Watermelons	Raisins	Total
Production:	1934	90,062	202,517	51,917	20,977	38,440	169,713		
	1935	76,320	221,401	31,717	26,033	30,433	193,463		
	1936	61,714	180,144	46,074	14,106	14,851	117,605		
	1937	91,811	179,903	54,982	31,736	20,316	186,828		
	1938	89,242	200,883	53,198	31,493	14,951	257,215		
Total		409,149	984,848	237,888	124,345	118,991	924,824		
Average		81,829.8	196,969.6	47,577.6	24,869	23,798.2	184,964.8		560,009
Per capita average, kgs.		22.5	54.3	13.1	6.8	6.6	50.9		154.2
Imports:	1934	98.5	36.6	730.7		5.6	9,263.9	100.8	
	1935	236.1	9.1	2,325.8		.8	10,021.4	58	
	1936	139.1	9.8	3,282.5	1.9	1.1	3,282.5	24.5	
	1937	17.1	11.	17,200.8		3.4	6,963.3	71.1	
	1938	147.6		11,319.8	28.9	9.1	8,865.3		
Exports:	1934	114.7	1,152	8,565.8		1,457.9	24.1	205.2	
	1935	137.4	1,710.7	10,989.2		2,469.7	125	589.9	
	1936	313.8	3,294.7	14,263	207.9	861.7	298.8	357.7	
	1937	212.9	1,886.8	27,190.7	1,098.6	2,468.2	438.9	616.6	
	1938	292.2	2,313.3	28,394.4	2,244.1	3,055.6	605.4	727.8	
Total exports		1,071	10,357.5	89,423.1	3,550.6	10,313.1	1,492.2	2,497.2	118,704.7
Total imports		638.4	66.5	34,859.6	30.8	20	38,396.4	254.4	74,266.1
Net exports		432.6	10,291	54,563.5	3,519.8	10,293.1		2,242.8	44,438.6
Net imports							36,904.2		
Average net exports		86.5	2,058.2	10,912.7	704.0	2,058.6		448.6	8,887.7
Average net imports							7,380.8		
Average (available for) consumption		81,743.3	194,911.4	36,664.9	24,165	21,739.6	192,345.6	- 448.6	551,121.3
Per capita average, kgs.		22.5	53.7	10.1	6.5	6	52.9		151.7

APPENDIX 31 TABLE V

LIVESTOCK CENSUS

PRODUCTION AND USE

(Heads, Dec. 31, each year)

Production:	Cattle & Buffalo	Sheep	Goats	Swine	Poultry Chickens	Geese	Ducks	Turkeys	Pigeons	Total Poultry
1934	298,000	2,069,842	1,695,388	6,282						
1935	367,596	2,123,573	1,735,808	5,467	8,540,018	36,937	39,130	93,663	2,368,707	
1936	449,114	2,195,175	1,822,983	7,156	8,574,000					
1937	345,228	2,273,524	1,659,514	8,324						8,267,800
1938	491,918	3,079,877	2,630,988	9,634						5,146,880
Total	1,951,856	11,741,991	9,544,681	36,863	17,014,018					13,413,680
Average	390,371.2	2,348,398.2	1,908,936.2	7,372.6						6,706,840
Per 100 average head	10.8	64.7	52.6	.2						
Imports:										
1934	6,589	382,402	52,631	11						113,842
1935	10,953	465,764	36,863	11						157,967
1936	8,496	198,095	24,063							41,858
1937	5,063	46,783	3,774	14						379
1938	6,075	210,593	22,777							51,499
Exports:										
1934	436	11,077	7,966	14						510,639
1935	3,688	88,720	17,842	110						481,559
1936	2,600	62,976	6,900	70						215,774
1937	6,453	8,790	7,792	200						362,437
1938	270	36,762	10,235	9,260						531,499
Total exports	13,447	208,325	50,735	9,654						2,101,908
Total imports	37,176	1,303,637	140,108	36						365,545
Net exports				9,618						1,736,363
Net imports	23,729	1,095,312	89,373							
Average net exports				1,923.6						347,272.6
Average net imports	4,745.8	219,062.2	17,874.6							
Average (available for) consumption	395,117	2,567,460.4	1,926,810.8	54,490						6,359,567.4
Per 100 average head	10.8	70.7	53	15						17.6

Appendix 32--Manufactures

Principal Manufactures in Lebanon

Food	1936	1937
Ethyl alcohol	52,461 kgs.	44,535 kgs.
Ethyl alcohol (denatured)	156,085 kgs.	201,847 kgs.
Arak	500,000 kgs.	1,100,000 kgs.
Biscuits	125,000 kgs.	265,000 kgs.
Beer	21,532 hl.	12,850 hl.
Chocolate	150,080 kgs.	143,000 kgs.
Candied fruit	200,000 kgs.	143,000 kgs.
Food pastes	450,000 kgs.	940,000 kgs.
Construction		
Cement	136,000 tons	175,700 tons
Clothing and Allied Industries		
Hosiery and Shoes	200,000 pairs	200,000 pairs
Silk cloth	24,000 meters	38,000 meters
Cotton (filés)	550,000 kgs.	1,000,000 kgs.
Cotton cloth	---	20,000 pieces of 30 yards
Household		
Matches	17,000,000 boxes	14,215,000 boxes
Soap, Marseilles variety	500 tons	1,650 tons
Toilet Articles		
Essence	4,000 kgs.	9,000 kgs.
Eau de Cologne	---	21,530 kgs.
Brushes	410,000	380,000
Razor blades	25,000 boxes of 100 blades	36,500 boxes of 100 blades

Principal Manufactures in Syria (South)

Cloth for men	20,000 meters	35,000 meters
Sheets and blankets cloth	35,000 meters	55,000 meters
Tanned hides	218,500	274,000
Soap	65 tons	45 tons
Starch	420 tons	475 tons
Distilling	200 tons	235 tons
Flour	34,600 tons	52,000 tons
Cement	58,000 tons	74,000 tons
Shoes	120,000 pairs	145,000 pairs
Cement tiles	1,225,000	1,485,000

Principal Manufactures in Syria (North)

Tanned hides	72,490	106,680
Arak	5,540 hl.	10,000 hl.
Wine	14,700 hl.	20,000 hl.
Flour	165,000 tons	115,000 tons
Soap	1,000 tons	1,300 tons
Shoes	800,000 pairs	750,000 pairs

Appendix 34--Railroads

a. The Syrian railroad system comprises the following (see attached sketch map):

Divisions	Route	Gauge	Kilometrage Route	Kilometrage Track
CHF (Chemins de fer du Hijāz)	(Haifa-)Samakh Der'a - Damascus	1.05 m (3'5 3/8")	248[a,b]	
DHP (Chemins de fer de Damas à Hama et Prolongements)				
(a)	Damascus-Rayak -Beirut[c]	1.05 m (3'5 3/8")	150	
(b)	Rayak-Homs -Aleppo plus branch, Homs-Tripoli	1.435 m (4'8 1/2")	434	
LSB (Lignes Syriennes du Baghdād) (a) Meydaniekbez-Aleppo (b) Aleppo-Chobanbey (c) Nusaybin-Tel Kotchek (d) [Sud: Chobanbey-Nusaybin]	From Chobanbey to Nusaybin, the Baghdād Railroad is privately owned and operated [= Chemins de Fer du Sud, a French Company formed under Turkish law]; Turkey and Syria have, by treaty, reciprocal rights on the entire Syrian reach of the Baghdād Railroad [i.e. from Meydaniekbez east] including the right to move troops.	1.435 m (4'8 1/2")	268	
	Total Standard		702	772
	Total Narrow		398	447[d]

[a] Includes 32 km. of cog railroad in the ascent from Beirut.
[b] Not including the 45 km. military branch, Ezra'-Suweida.
[c] The Tramways Libanais, 0.6 m. (1'11 1/2") gauge line from Beirut north to Mameltein was abandoned in 1935.
[d] Includes all sidings and passing loops. Breakdown not given.

b. Equipment and Rolling Stock

(1) Locomotives:

Line	Standard Gauge	Narrow Gauge
LSB	15	--
DHP		
Adhesion	23	21

2756

Line	Standard Gauge	Narrow Gauge
DHP		
Cog and adhesion	--	12
Cog	--	7
Sud	22	--
CFH	--	20
"G8" 0-8-0	43[a]	--
	103[b]	60[c]

[a] In 1939 General Weygand ordered 50 locomotives, of which 43 arrived; after the British-Free French conquest of Syria (June-July, 1941) it was found that 28 of these were not operating (21 lacked tubes and tube plates; 4 lacked boilers; 3 required heavy repairs; the tenders of all were being used to transport oil).

[b] Includes 35 awaiting repair in June-July, 1941.

[c] Includes 35 awaiting repair in June-July, 1941. Does not include 7 derelicts (on the CFH) which could be used at least for part-salvage.

(2) Cars

(Passenger)	Standard	Under Repair	Narrow	Under Repair	Total	Under Repair
Rail cars	4[a]	1	--	--	4	1
Coaches	90	24	106	18[b]	196	42
Baggage	24	3	16	4	40	7
Total	118	28	122	22	240	50
(Freight)						
Covered	948	89	283	15	1,231	104
Highsided	222	15	212	18	434	33
Lowsided	95	2	14	--	79	2
Flatcar	303	64	82	3	385	67
	1,538	170	591	36	2,129	206

[a] Built by Dietrich: maximum speed, 56 m.p.h.; capacity, 74 seats per car. They have been a very successful innovation, reducing the run Tripoli-Aleppo from 9 hours (steam) to 4 hours 4 minutes. After 1938, they also accounted for the weekly service Aleppo-Tel Kotchek in 8 hours (524 km.)

[b] CFH stock, all of which has open platforms.

c. Locomotive Repair Shops and Depots

Repair Shops

Standard		Narrow	
[a] Rayak	DHP	[a] Beirut	DHP
Homs	DHP	[a] Damascus	CFH
Tripoli	DHP	Der‘a	CFH
Aleppo	(DHP (LSB		
Muslimīya	LSB		

[a] Main workshop

Supply Depots

Standard

Rayak
Homs
Tripoli
Hama
Aleppo
Muslimīya
Karkamish

Presumably also at:
Meydaniekbez
Chobanbey
Derebesiye
Nusaybin and
Tel Kotchek

Narrow

Beirut
al-Mu‘allaqa
Der‘a
Damascus
Samank

d. Roadbed, Gradients and Curvatures

	% of Track Kilometrage		
	Standard	Narrow	Both
Gradients[a]			
Horizontal	29	24	27
Up to 5%	25	17	22
5 -10%	19	18	19
10 -25%	27	31	28
Over 25%	--	10	4
Curvatures			
Straight	69	67	68
Radius 500^m or over	19	18	15
Radius less than 500^m	12	25	17

[a] Includes the cog section of the Beirut-Damascus line.

Appendix 35--Roads

Extensive road data, together with related comments on strategical considerations, is to be presented in this appendix section. However, it has been delayed by the failure of the French Desk in M.I.D. to notify the Near East Section of COI regarding its decision on maps and hence the spelling of place names.

Appendix 36 -- Shipping

a. Beirut

(1) Oil Supplies.

Tons	Shell	Chammas Company	Mantacheff Company (Société du Naphte)	National Petroleum Company
Furnace Fuel				
Total Storage Capacity:	4,610	1,870	----	----
Average Stocks (1939):	2,058	423	----	----
Origin of Oil:	Abbādan, Haifa	Rumania		
Diesel Oil				
Tankage Available:	880	----	----	----
Normal Stocks:	500	----	----	----
Kerosene				
Tankage Oil Capacity:	5,000	----	1,151	1,767
Normal Stocks:	2,869	----	283	1,105
Gasoline				
Tankage Oil Capacity:	7,080	----	579	1,329
Normal Stocks:	4,222	----	304	559
Lubricants	400	----	35	60

	Syria & Lebanon Oil Co.	Comptoir du Levant (Mourgue d'Algue)	French Army	Others
Kerosene				
Tankage Oil Capacity:	992	527	648	----
Normal Stocks:	612	229	----	----
Gasoline				
Tankage Oil Capacity:	900	625	588	----
Normal Stocks:	559	319	----	124

(a) Tankage capacity.

Shell	13,000 tons
Standard Oil ...	10,000 "
Belpetrole	1,000 "
Nat'l Petroleum Company	1,300 "
Mourgue d'Algue.	1,100 "

Although single source is quoted, deviations from the figures given above are unexplained.

(b) Fueling

1. Method.

Shell. By tank lighter (capacity 280 tons). An additional 700-ton lighter may now be available.

2. Rate. The 280-ton lighter can supply fuel at the rate of 150 tons hourly for quantities up to 280 tons. For larger quantities, the rate is only 45 tons hourly, since the lighter has to be towed back to the mouth of the Beirut River for refilling.

3. Wharves. All companies have small jetties from which pipe lines are floated out for the reception of incoming cargoes, but these lines are not suitable for bunkering ships.

(2) Cranes.

Type	No.	Cranes		Height of Lift (feet)		Location
		Capacity (tons)	Radius (feet)	Above Water	Above Ground Level	
(a) Hand Worked						
Radial	1	1	9.85	12.13	7.21	Mole A -- North Mole
"	1	1.5	16.40	22.25	17.36 (electric)	Traverse -- West Quay
"	1	1.5	15.41	21.33	16.40 (electric)	Mole D -- In first (front ?) of Company's offices
"	1	3	26.25	29.85	24.93 (electric)	Mole A -- East Quay
"	1	3	26.25	29.53	24.61 (electric)	Traverse -- East Quay
(b) Electric						
Travelling	4	2	15.41	----	10.88	General Stores VI, ground floor
"	2	2	13.12	----	10.49	General Stores VI, first floor
Radial	2	1	9.02	----	11.80	General Stores VI, second floor
Travelling	4	2	15.41	----	10.88	General Stores VII, ground floor
"	8	2	15.41	18.86	13.94	Bonded Warehouse X, ground floor
"	4	2	15.41	18.86	13.94	Bonded Warehouse X, first floor
"	2	2	15.41	18.86	15.74	Bonded Warehouse X, first floor
Windlass (Monorail)	2	2	7.21	12.46	7.54	Hangar P
"	1	2	7.21	12.46	7.54	Open dépôt "C" -- Iron Ore Quay
Radial (on rails)	2	3-6	R.3 Tons 26.25	30.84	25.91	T.E.P. (Loading Quay E. of New Sorting Space)
			R.6 Tons 13.12	37.75	30.84	T.E.P. (Loading Quay E. of New Sorting Space)
Gantries	1	3	20.01 to	101.71	96.78	Main Quay
			64.96	77.10	72.18	Main Quay
	1	3	19.69 to	63.98	59.06	South Quay-New Basin
			59.06	63.98	59.06	South Quay-New Basin
Steam Floating	1	50	32.81 59.06 (with 30 Ton Load)	52.49	----	Towed Where Needed
	1	25	21.33	34.45	----	Towed Where Needed
	1	10	13.12	22.97	----	Towed Where Needed

b. Tripoli

(1) Oil Berths. There are three loading berths 2,600 feet apart, with an average depth of 50 feet of water. Each berth has two 12-inch pipe lines, which taper to connect with a 10-inch hose. The length of these lines, which are laid fanwise, is 4,420 feet, 4,400 feet, and 5,470 feet, respectively. Loading at each berth is at the rate of 1,000 tons hourly.

(a) Capacity. It is estimated that seventeen 10,000-ton tankers can be loaded monthly and about 4,000,000 tons of oil exported annually. On January 30, 1940, there were at Tripoli 28 storage tank with a capacity of 14,000 gallons of crude oil each. (See also Section 32 -- Manufactures)

(2) Seaplane Harbor.

(a) Description. A breakwater 1,200 yards long runs E-NE, and is intended to protect the landing area, 1,000 yards in diameter, from northerly winds, but it is doubtful whether this breakwater completely accomplishes its purpose.

(b) A hangar and the slipways are located on a reclaimed area about 300 yards x 200 yards, which is located east of the point.

Appendix 39 -- Communications

a. Post offices, 1937

	Lebanon	Syria
1st class, full service offices	66	43
2nd class, limited services offices	170	116
	236	159
Localities served by 1st class offices		
Bi-weekly distribution	40	20
Weekly "	23	16
5 times per week "	-	2
3 times per week "	-	2
Number of weekly service rural routes	220	26
Total length of these routes	5,357 miles	842 miles
Inhabitants per office	3,621	15,066
Square miles per office	17	444

b. Radio facilities, 1938

Station	Wireless Stations Call Sign	Frequency (kc/s)
	(Naval)	
Beirut	FUY	4450, 6400, 9350, 11100, 11550
	(Military)	
Abu-Kamāl	FBQ	175-195
ʻAjalāt	FMU	143-166
Aleppo	FBA	140-190; 5600
ʻAlay	FMN	---
Beirut	(FBH (FBH 1 (FBH 2	(5000, 5365 (8948, 10850 (13027
Damascus	FMV	140-180, 340, 5200-5900
Dayr iz-Zōr	FRD	143-180, 340, 5200-5900
Darʻā	FMW	143-175
Dorīk	FBM	143-195, 250
Hasetche	FBO	170-190
Homs	FBC	143-185
Kamishli	FBN	143-185
Latakia	FMQ	143-190, 240
Palmyra	FBB	140-185, 5600-5900
Rās il-ʻAyn	FBP	190
Raggah	FBK	140-190
Rayāq	FMS	145-175
Suwaydah	FMZ	143-175, 4900-5300
it-Tell el Abyaḍ	FBI	143-185
Tripoli	FMT	143-185
Zulaf	FMX	143-180
	(Military Air)	
Aleppo	FS 3	4900-5900
Damascus	FS 2	5000-5900
Dayr az-Zōr	FS 5	5100-5900
Hassetche	FS 6	4800-5800
Rayāq	FS 1	4800-5900
	(Government and Commercial)	
Beirut	ODQ	29.07
	ODS	5130
	ODL	5355
	ODP	5410
	ODA	6785
	ODM	6975
	ODJ	7575
	ODC	7985

	ODI	9090	
	ODF	10360	
	ODK	10570	
	ODH	10820	
	ODE	11625	
	ODB	13270	
	ODO	13840	
	ODD	16075	
	ODG	17160	
	ODN	18000	
	ODU	20020	
	(Governmental Coast)		
Aleppo	FXF	350	
Beirut	ODR	8333, 12500	
	FMN	140-190,5000-5200	
Dayr iz-Zōr	FXG	350	
	(Civil Air)	Transmitting & Receiving	
Damascus	ODY	333.3	7300
		8400	11200
		14600	16300
Tripoli	ODZ	333.3	5600
		7300	8400
		11200	14600

I.P.C. (Iraq Petroleum Company) Stations

(Pumping Stations)		
T2	OD2AAC	272.72
		402.68
		5714.28
T3	OD2AAE	272.72
		402.68
		5714.28
T4	OD2AAB	272.72
		402.68
		5714.28
Tripoli	OD2AAD	272.72
		402.68
		5714.28